manpower

january 1972
U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
MANPOWER ADMINISTRATION

Who's Unhappy at Work and Why

manpower
volume 4 number 1 U.S. DEPARTMENT OF LABOR
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The Past as Prologue

"What's past is prologue," said Shakespeare, and two articles in this issue bear him out.

Last July in this journal Dr. John Wittman, an assistant professor of economics at Texas Tech University, said that the incipient trend to a 4-day, 40-hour workweek left a lot of questions unanswered. Still to be determined, Dr. Wittman contended, are its long-range impact on productivity, employee morale, family life, and a number of other matters with important implications for the Nation as a whole as well as for individual employers and workers.

This month some of these questions are examined from two points of view: Union and management. W. Hunter Simpson is president of a Seattle electronics manufacturing firm that has switched to the 4-40 workweek. Among the advantages he finds in the idea—for employer and employee alike—are higher productivity, improved morale, and more leisure time for the worker and greater flexibility in arranging his personal life.

Union spokesmen Jacob Clayman and Thomas Hannigan disagree. They see 4-40 as a threat to the hard-earned 8-hour day, a disruptive influence on the worker's family life and his participation in community affairs, and a health and safety hazard. The cases for and against 4-40 begin on page 14.

Some 18 months ago Dr. Trudy W. Banta and MANPOWER assistant editor Patricia Marshall reported on a study of how schools and industry were getting together to improve job-oriented education for the disadvantaged. Dr. Banta recently took another look at the programs she first studied in 1968. With less visible turmoil in the cities and less vigor in the economy, some changes were expected. The changes Dr. Banta found reflect a different emphasis rather than a slackening of industry interest in helping schools prepare the poor to deal with the job market. Her status report on an *Enduring Partnership* starts on page 21.

Ellis Rottman

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J. D. Hodgson
Secretary of Labor

Malcolm R. Lovell, Jr.
Assistant Secretary for Manpower

Paul J. Fasser, Jr.
Deputy Assistant Secretary for Manpower and Manpower Administrator

Ellis Rottman, *editor*
Emil Michael Aun, *associate editor*
Patricia Marshall, *assistant editor*
Richard Mathews, *art director*

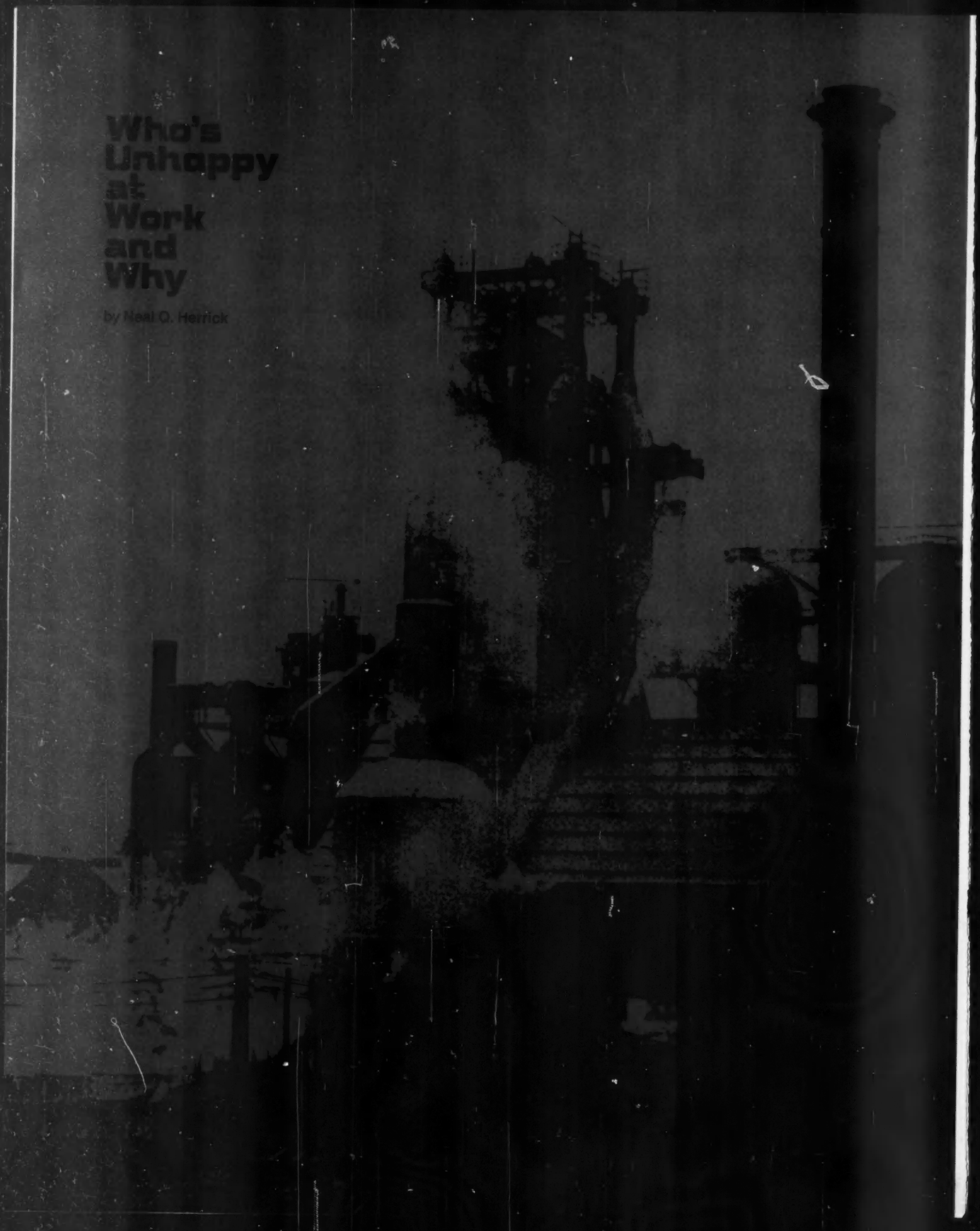
MANPOWER Magazine is the official monthly journal of the Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor. It is distributed without charge to personnel of the national and regional Manpower Administration offices and, by special arrangement, to State employment security agencies. It is also available on subscription at $5.50 a year (single copies 50 cents) from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. In countries other than the United States, Canada, and Mexico, annual subscription is $7.00. Use of funds for printing this publication approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget October 25, 1968.

Expressions of opinions in articles by authors do not necessarily represent the views of the U.S. Department of Labor. Correspondence regarding articles should be addressed to the Editor, MANPOWER Magazine, Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210.

CHANGES OF ADDRESS: Send new address, including ZIP code, to Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402. Please also include old address label from MANPOWER.

Who's Unhappy at Work and Why

by Neal Q. Herrick



At one time, "tough-minded" men of affairs ridiculed any concern over workers' feelings. Workers, they said, cared about only one thing: Pay. The worker exchanged his time for an agreed-upon sum of money with which he then purchased his necessities and pleasures.

Now we are not so sure. Pay is at an all-time high, but worker dissatisfaction is metamorphosing from a hobbyhorse of the "tender-minded" into a fire-breathing dragon as workers begin translating their dissatisfactions into alienated behavior. Turnover rates are climbing despite rising wage levels. Absenteeism has increased as much as 100 percent in the past 10 years in the automobile industry. Workers talk back to their bosses. They no longer accept the old authoritarian ways. In short, workers themselves are telling us the same things about their feelings and needs that academicians, psychologists, and philosophers told us in the past.

Corporate managers are becoming interested in such previously academic questions as "Who is dissatisfied?", "Why are they dissatisfied?", and "What are the implications of this dissatisfaction?" At least some of the answers to these and similar questions can be drawn from a national survey of more than 1,500 workers conducted late in 1969 by the Survey Research Center at the University of Michigan under contract from the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment Standards Administration.

Young Blacks Most Discontent

According to the survey, workers consider interesting work a more important job factor than pay. However, the survey also shows that the higher a worker's pay, the more likely he is to be satisfied with his job. These two findings are not necessarily inconsistent; people with high paying jobs generally seem to have more interesting work.

The workers questioned in the study were divided into 107 subgroups of workers broken down by various combinations of socioeconomic characteristics such as sex, race, age, and income. Of these groups black workers under age 30 were far and away the most dissatisfied with their jobs. Thirty-seven percent expressed negative attitudes toward their jobs. The second most dissatisfied group was workers age 29 and under with some college education. Women age 29 and under were the third most dissatisfied group. It is striking that, of the six most dissatisfied groups, all but one were made up of workers age 29 and under. The exception was individuals with some college experience who made less than $5,000 a year.

Age also was a factor in 3 of the 6 least dissatisfied groups: Workers age 55 and older, workers age 45 and older earning more than $4,999, and blacks more than 44 years of age. Age, however, was not a factor with the two groups expressing the least dissatisfaction—self-employed persons and construction workers.

One of every four workers under 30 felt dissatisfied. Only 13 percent of workers 30 to 44 expressed negative feelings toward their jobs; the percentage dropped to 11 for workers 45 to 54 and to 6 for workers age 55 and over. Perhaps younger workers are more dissatisfied because they are a "new breed" with higher expectations than their elders and no sobering contact with the 1930's to influence their values. An opposing view is that—as did their elders before them—young workers will become more satisfied as they grow older and accommodate themselves to the hard realties of the industrial world. The truth no doubt lies somewhere in between these views—still, the "new breed" aspect is fraught with significance for the future.

Somewhat apart from the subject of work satisfaction—but nonetheless having wide-ranging applications for employment policy—is the finding that only 10 percent of employed persons age 55 and over reported dissatisfaction with their lives. This was as low a percentage as for any age group and takes on real significance when contrasted with findings in 1965 and 1968 that from 27 to 30 percent of retired persons were unhappy with their lives in general.

Ranking job satisfaction by industry or occupation, construction workers and the self-employed were at the top of the contentment scale. Only 1 in about 20 from these two groups was dissatisfied. In technical, professional, and managerial occupations, only about 1 in 10 was dissatisfied. But nearly 1 in 4 workers in service occupations and the wholesale-retail industry expressed job discontent. And manufacturing workers were not much happier.

Blacks were about twice as likely as whites to be dissatisfied with their jobs. This held true through age 44. Then, the percentage of dissatisfied blacks dropped to 7 as compared with 9 for whites age 44 and over.

The fact that young blacks were the most dissatisfied segment of the labor force and older blacks were among the least dissatisfied suggests that, while the generation gap may not be a racial phenomenon, it is greater among blacks than among whites. Also, while the dissatisfaction of blacks with both their jobs and their lives decreased sharply after age 44, their feelings of depression increased noticeably.

Unique Generation Gap

One last comment on the black generation gap: Twice as many blacks over 44 were dissatisfied with their lives as were dissatisfied with their jobs. Older whites were about as dissatisfied with one as with the other. This seems to bolster the idea of a unique generation gap among blacks. Perhaps older blacks feel that just being employed is reason enough to be satisfied with their work lives. Problems of housing and social discrimination may account for their greater tendency toward dissatisfaction with life in general.

Black workers, as a group, appeared quite indifferent to being in the $5,000-$10,000 personal income category compared with the under $5,000 bracket. The portion of black workers with negative attitudes toward their jobs—22 percent—was the same in both categories. Among no other group of people (with the exception of workers under 30) was the dissatisfaction rate as high in the $5,000-$10,000 salary bracket as in the under $5,000 group. Even the dissatisfaction of young workers seemed to dissipate when they earned over $10,000 a year.

The same disinterest in money, up to a point, appeared in the life dissatisfaction data. The percentage of blacks dissatisfied with life remained the same until the $10,000-per-year mark was reached. However, blacks shared this latter charac-

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Mr. Herrick is acting deputy administrator for program development in the U.S. Department of Labor's Employment Standards Administration. He recently completed a 1-year Federal Executive Fellowship with the W. E. Upjohn Institute for Employment Research. This article is taken from a chapter written by Mr. Herrick for a forthcoming book, *Where Have All the Robots Gone*, to be published by MacMillan, which he is editing with Dr. Harold L. Sheppard, staff social scientist with the Upjohn Institute.

teristic with certain other groups (female workers and people with some college education).

In terms of "collar color," 17 percent of blue-collar workers expressed negative attitudes toward work compared with 13 percent of their white-collar brothers but the difference was concentrated in one age group.

An identical portion—24 percent—of blue-collar and white-collar workers under 30 expressed negative attitudes toward their jobs. However, in the 30-44 age group, the percentage of dissatisfied white-collar workers shrank to a low of 9 while the blue-collar percentage only diminished to 18. At 45 and above, the two groups again contained pretty much the same percentages of dissatisfied workers.

One reason for the disparity in dissatisfaction between white-collar and blue-collar workers in the 30-44 age bracket might be the "economic squeeze" that former Assistant Secretary of Labor Jerome M. Rosow said blue-collar workers face in their middle years. Certainly, blue-collar workers usually achieve their top earnings earlier in life, while white-collar workers begin to reap the rewards of their greater education in their thirties.

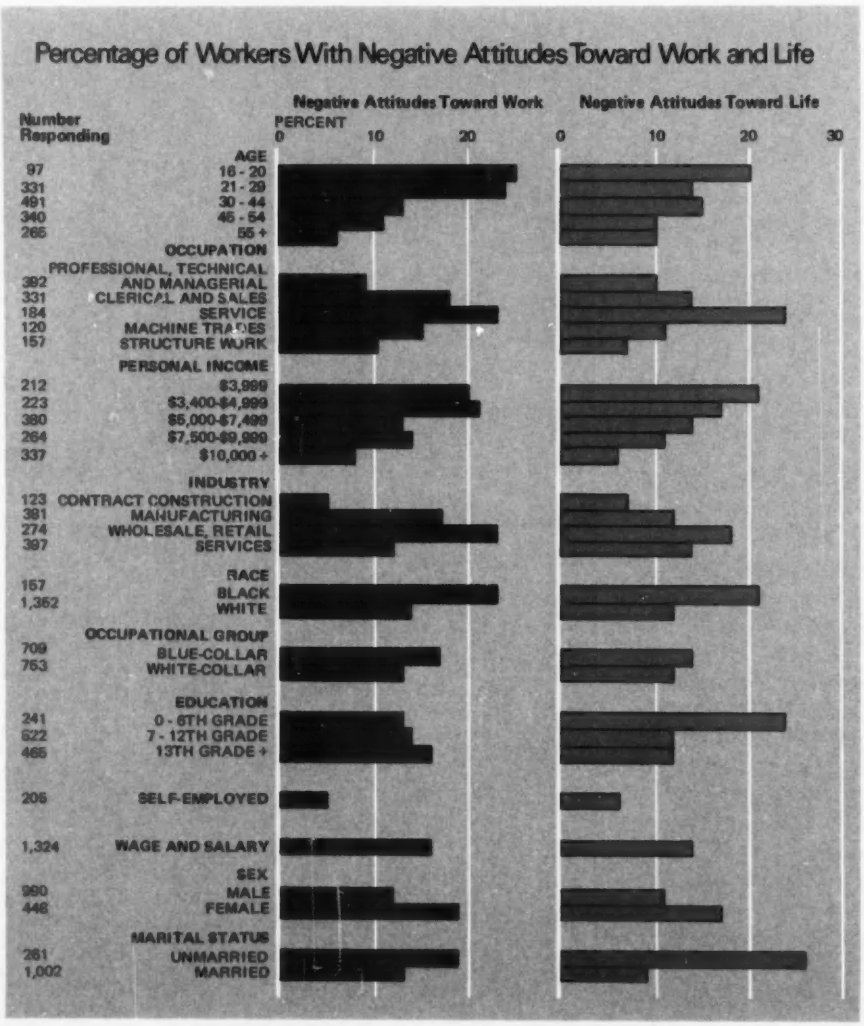
When worker dissatisfaction data were broken down by education, there was a surprising result: The percentage of discontented workers was the same among those with an elementary school education or less, those with a seventh to twelfth grade education, and those who had progressed beyond high school.

Among workers with low incomes, college experience was a real handicap to attaining job satisfaction. Those who had progressed beyond high school and were making less than $5,000 a year tended to be more dissatisfied than workers in the same income bracket who had not been to college. The same held true for workers in the $5,000-$10,000 bracket. Only when an individual with education beyond high school began earning $10,000 a year was he as satisfied with work as his less educated brother.

Women were considerably more likely to express negative attitudes toward their work and toward their lives than were men. One is reminded of Freud's desperate question, "What do they want? What in God's name do they want?"

The answer seems clear. They want comparable jobs and equal pay. Among men and women in the same income ranges, differences in work dissatisfaction tended to disappear. The theoretical solution is simple: Equal employment opportunity.

Women's higher level of dissatisfaction with work—unlike their feelings about life—does not appear to be related to age. As with men, fewer women in the higher age groups reported job dissatisfaction and the difference between women and men remained about the same all along the age spectrum.



Married People Happier

Female dissatisfaction with life does not appear to set in until about age 30. Until then the proportion of dissatisfied women is about the same as the proportion of dissatisfied men. In the middle and older years, about twice as many women as men were dissatisfied with their lives.

At first glance, marriage would seem to substantially increase satisfaction on and off the job. Overall, 21 percent of unmarried workers said they were discontented with their jobs, a feeling expressed by only 13 percent of married workers. And only 9 percent of married people reported negative attitudes toward life, compared with 26 percent of unwed workers.

But it is best not to jump to conclusions when dealing with gross percentages. For example, when the data are grouped by age and income, the difference in job satisfaction almost disappears. Unmarried people are, after all, concentrated in the under-30 age group and

young workers, as we have seen, tend to be highly dissatisfied.

Marriage itself, however, rather than some associated characteristic, seems to be tied to life satisfaction. Unmarried young people were twice as likely to be dissatisfied with their lives as their married counterparts. Unwed workers in their middle years were three times as likely to experience this general unhappiness. At age 45 and over, the ratio of unmarrieds to married people expressing life dissatisfaction jumped to almost 5-1.

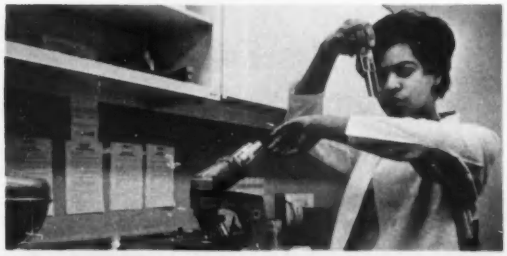
Income can cure a lot of things but it doesn't seem to make the unwed condition any more tolerable. Among workers making less than $5,000 a year, unmarrieds were twice as likely to be dissatisfied with their lives as marrieds. And single workers earning more than $5,000 were almost three times as likely to be dissatisfied with their lives as their married counterparts.

Workers Rate Job Aspects

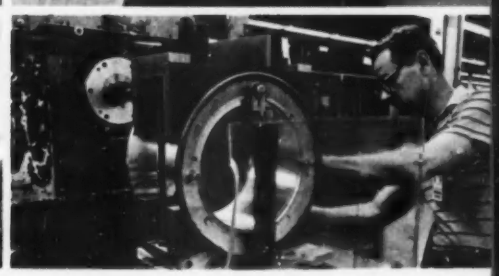
A major source of disagreement, among union and government officials, employers, and academics when they get together to discuss the problem of worker discontent is the question: "What's bugging them anyhow?" In general, union and government people seem to believe that it's a matter of money, while employers and academics feel that workers are angry because they expect—but do not get—fulfillment from their work.

Of course, when we talk of the "worker" we are talking about a nonexistent person. Some workers are no doubt motivated solely by money and look at the world of work as a marketplace where they can exchange their time for money. Just as certainly, there are other workers who wish to be active in their jobs and express themselves through the medium of work.

We can also speculate that young people might be dissatisfied for different reasons than those in their middle years or older people, that blacks might have different causes of dissatisfaction than whites, and that women might have different grievances than men. Keeping in mind these individual and group differences among workers, the responses to questions asked in the survey point toward some tentative conclusions about what is bugging workers.



'An identical portion —24 percent— of blue-collar and white-collar workers under 30 expressed negative attitudes toward their jobs.'



Workers were asked how important they considered some 25 aspects of work, including pay, working conditions, and relations with coworkers. The results may be surprising to those who believe workers are interested mainly in pay.

Of the five work features rated most important, only one had to do with tangible or economic benefits. And that one (good pay) was ranked number 5. Ranked above pay were interesting work, enough help and equipment to get the job done, enough information to get the job done, and enough authority to do the job.

Work aspects rated 6th, 7th, and 8th in importance were:

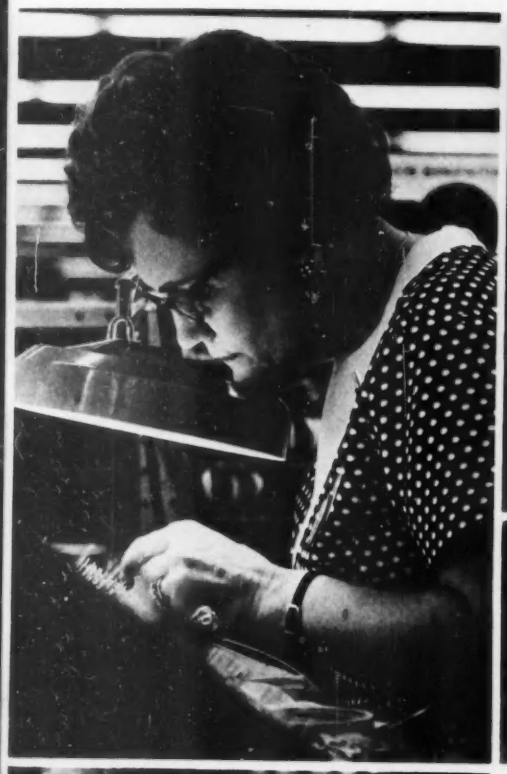
- Opportunity to develop special abilities.
- Job security.
- Seeing the results of one's work.

Of the eight top-ranked work aspects, six had to do with the content of the worker's job.

Some observers contend that workers might overstate their concern with the noneconomic aspects of their jobs in order to put themselves in a more favorable light. I would suggest, however, that we take the worker at his word and seriously question our traditional notions regarding his needs and priorities.

In addition to being asked how important they considered the 25 job aspects listed, workers also were asked to what extent each one was present in their jobs. This provided a rough indication of the aspects of work which the most workers felt to be in need of improvement. Where more workers felt an aspect of work to be very important than believed it to be very true of their jobs, a "satisfaction gap" existed. Of the 12 job aspects in which such

Who's Unhappy *continued*



Women's higher level of dissatisfaction with work does not appear to be related to age.

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'Only 13 percent of workers 30 to 44 expressed negative feelings toward their jobs; the percentage dropped to 11 for workers 45 to 54 and to 6 for workers age 55 and over.'

a gap was found, four were mainly economic, seven had to do with job content, and one involved personal relationships.

The largest satisfaction gap for the work force as a whole concerned feelings about promotional opportunity. Relatively few workers—55 percent of those interviewed—said that chances for promotion were very important to them. The facts of work life, however, created a large satisfaction gap, since only 25 percent considered good chances for promotion characteristic of their jobs. Opportunities for promotion have both economic and noneconomic implications. Money certainly is involved, but so is the possibility for personal growth and achievement.

The aspect with the second largest satisfaction gap was "good pay," with 64 percent ranking it very important and only 40 percent stating that it was very true of their jobs. Third was the "opportunity to develop one's special abilities," and fourth was the "adequacy of fringe benefits." "Interesting work" was fifth, and "enough help and equipment to get the job done" was sixth.

While these figures indicate that more workers feel their jobs fall short with regard to promotions and pay than on other aspects of work, it should be stressed that the satisfaction gap is only a very rough indication of the number who feel a discrepancy exists between their desire for a given work feature and the fulfillment of this desire. It does not measure the relative importance of this discrepancy to the worker.

The overall survey shows that the chance to do meaningful work and to achieve and grow on the job is of great importance to the average American worker—perhaps even overshadowing financial considerations. It also appears that this chance is sadly lacking in the average job.

This need for job satisfaction can best be met through the humanization of work: Through restructuring the work situation so that jobs provide autonomy, interesting work, and the opportunity to be active, to grow, and to achieve. Widely varying rates of dissatisfaction in various industries suggest a targeting of efforts to improve the quality of work. Just as society gives particular attention to industries with exceptionally high accident rates, perhaps special assistance might be tendered by the Government—and special concern shown by employers and unions—in industries with particularly high dissatisfaction rates. Similarly, special efforts might be made to alleviate the causes of unusually high job discontent among particular groups of workers, such as women, blacks, and younger people.

Work or life dissastisfaction were seldom reported by the self-employed. This supports the theory that independence of action is an important ingredient in satisfaction. It also points out the possibility of improving the structure of work by stimulating—through tax or other incentives and aids—economic opportunities for the very small businessman. A detailed examination of the occupations of the 205 self-employed workers in the University of Michigan sample would be a logical first step.

Major programs to employ the aged are needed. When only 10 percent of the sample of employed persons age 55 and older are dissatisfied with their lives, and when previous studies have shown that between 27 and 30 percent of retired persons express negative attitudes toward life, it is time to develop programs allowing older people an alternative to "dropping out" of life. As Erich Fromm points out, the human being is by nature active and, when inactive, begins to die.

Consumer Equality Needed

Perhaps some innovation such as a major public service program for older workers should be considered. If it cannot be mounted on a voluntary base, some economic incentives, such as nominal compensation or travel expenses, could be used.

The University of Michigan study tells us nothing new about black workers. It has long been apparent that the healthy dissatisfaction of black people cannot be removed solely by equal employment opportunity. There must also be equal consumer opportunity: The minority group dollar must buy the same amounts and kinds of housing, education, and other consumer goods as do the dollars of other citizens. Having said this, however, it is still clear that proportionate representation of minorities—not only in the labor force as a whole but at all income levels—is necessary before there is even the chance of equal consumer opportunity.

Is the survey finding that women workers are more dissatified with their lives than men significantly related to women's long-standing second-class citizenship in the workplace? It is true that women have other crosses to bear than their disadvantages at work, but it would seem that—as with blacks—the basic dignity of satisfying and meaningful employment is a prerequisite to general feelings of worth and satisfaction with life.

The fact that the percentage of job dissatisfaction was the same among young blue-collar and young white-collar workers suggests that their discontent is as traceable to a time of life as it is to the workplace. There are, however, significant differences in the work situations and prospects of the two groups.

In a sense, the young blue-collar worker is living on borrowed time. The young white-collar worker could, if he would, look forward to doing more interesting work at higher pay as he moves into his middle years. The blue-collar worker has no such great expectations, or, if he has them, he is most sadly disappointed. As he passes his 30th and 35th birthdays, he becomes increasingly aware that there is no place for him to go (grow) at work. His income reaches a plateau and his work becomes fixed. Apparently, he resigns himself to a personally unrewarding worklife and perhaps denies to himself the importance of continued personal growth.

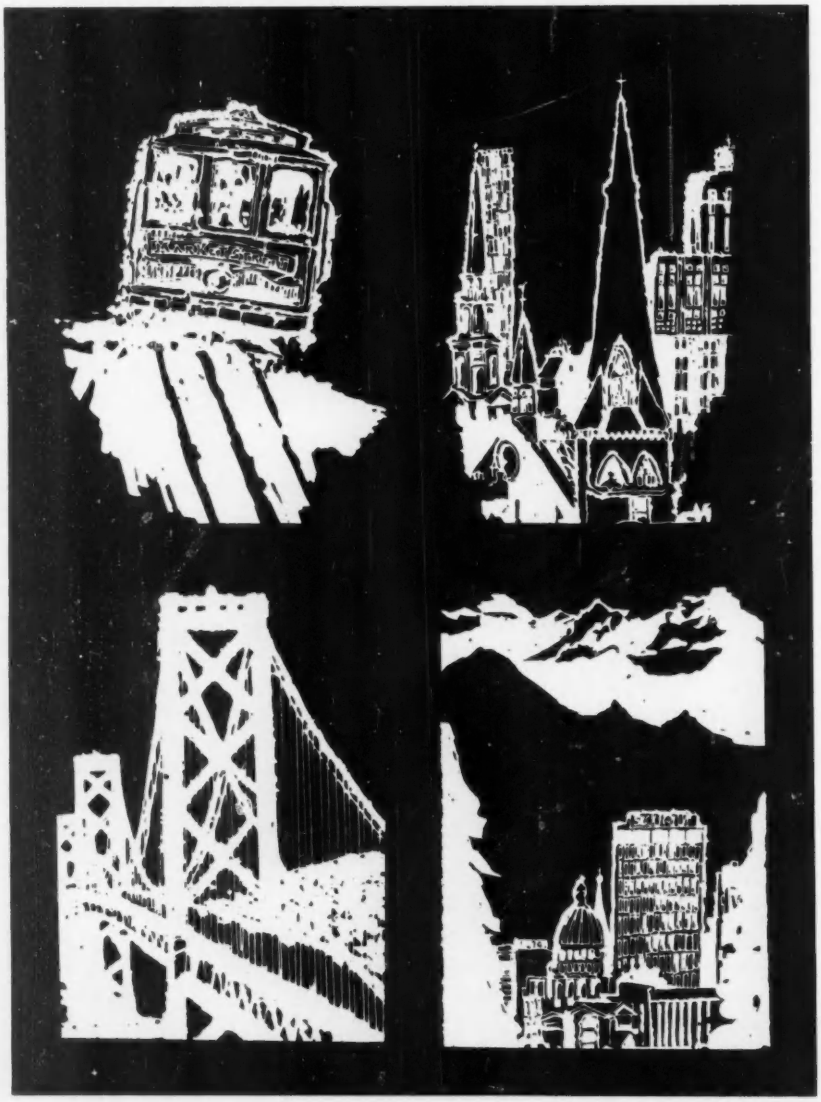
General Foods Corporation has come up with one promising solution to this problem. In at least one of its plants, the firm pays workers on the basis of the number of different jobs which they can do, rather than on the basis of the particular work they are doing at any one time. A General Foods worker in his thirties is unlikely to have learned every job in the plant. He still has something to gain and somewhere to grow as he becomes older.

Another possible approach is the establishment of a worker loan bank for education and training. Users would repay the loans out of increased earnings.

We must be very careful, however, not to view worker dissatisfaction as only a blue-collar problem. It is a workplace problem and should be approached by general remedies as well as solutions aimed at particular groups such as the blue-collar worker in his middle years. □

MANPOWER PROGRAMS IN 4 CITIES

Study Assesses Impact of Job Training On Individuals and Institutions



Manpower programs have done a good job of preparing the disadvantaged for steady work and better pay. They have been less successful in changing the institutions—with the exception of the employment service—that can help the poor gain economic security.

So says the Olympus Research Corporation, a nonprofit organization specializing in manpower and vocational education. Its recently completed report entitled *The Total Impact of Manpower Programs: A Four-City Case Study*,[1] says:

"Across all cities and programs and despite unfavorable economic conditions, the average enrollee in a training program was substantially and sometimes spectacularly better off in terms of employment stability and earnings because of his program participation."

The report is less sanguine about institutional change:

"Existing community institutions have been reoriented in their attitudes toward the disadvantaged, and their capability of providing service has changed in direct ratio to the degree of their involvement. Thus the schools have been changed little; the employment service, greatly; the private employers, moderately; the public employers, less; and the unions, hardly at all; while the political impact has been limited."

The cities studied were San Francisco, Oakland, Boston, and Denver. A follow-up sample for measuring the impact of training, remedial education, language, and orientation programs consisted of 1,709 persons who were enrolled between October 1969 and February 1970 in manpower programs under the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), and in the Work Incentive (WIN) and Concentrated Employment (CEP) Programs.

MDTA provides occupational training, either on the job or in the classroom, to the unemployed and underemployed; most enrollees are disadvantaged. WIN gives welfare recipients training and supportive services to move them off welfare into full-time jobs. CEP prepares the hard-core unemployed in urban and rural

[1]The full study is available from the National Technical Information Service, Operations Division, Springfield, Va. 22151 for $9 for a paper copy and 95 cents for microfiche (specify accession number PB 202930). A summary of the study also is available from NTIS for $3 for a copy and 95 cents for microfiche (specify accession number PB 202929).

areas with a high incidence of poverty—for instance, the ghettos of large cities—for permanent employment, also through training and supportive services.

Although the followup interviews with former manpower program participants were made during a period of rising unemployment and a steadily slackening labor market, the results were "surprisingly positive," according to the report. Wages rose sharply. Enrollees who worked sometime during a 36-month period before enrollment earned an average of $1.79 an hour; those who worked sometime during the year following training earned $2.27.

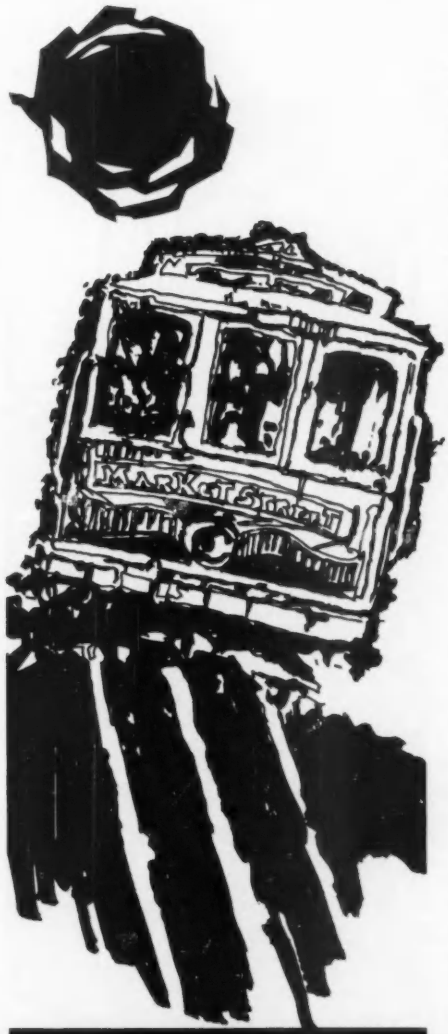
Of this 48-cent increase, "it is doubtful that more than 10 cents per hour could be attributable to general wage trends," the report says. The remainder was attributed to the impact of the training programs.

(Of the four cities, San Francisco had the best record. Wages there for those who worked rose from $1.76 before training to $2.51 afterwards, a boost of 43 percent.)

Employment stability also improved sharply. The average enrollee who had worked for some period during the 36 months before training was employed 54 percent of the time. This figure rose to 63 percent in the year after training, despite a slipping job market. The comparable figures for all enrollees—including those who did not work—were 44 percent before training and 48 percent afterwards. The report attributes the 44 and 48 percent figures, which are considered low, to "the contribution of WIN with its preponderance of female family heads on welfare who did not enter the labor force after training."

Although gains in income and employment stability were considerable, the report notes that the incomes of participants were still nothing to cheer about. Translating length of employment and salaries into "annual income equivalents," the report says that "the average enrollee across the four cities would have gained $1,380 a year" in earnings after training. "However, the average enrollee who worked following training was still earning only at a rate of $3,000 per year. Poverty had been made substantially more comfortable, but not eliminated."

There was little difference among the enrollees in the four cities studied in average age, education, size of household, or number of dependents. Average age was 28, education slightly above 10 years, and size of households between 4 and 4.5 people. Length of time in the programs varied from 5.9 months in Boston to 10.2 in Oakland.



"Participants represented a varied ethnic mixture. In San Francisco 36 percent were black, 18 percent Oriental, and 31 percent Spanish-speaking."

Of San Francisco's 378 enrollees, 57 percent were men. Some 52 percent of Denver's 320 participants were men. In Boston, on the other hand, only 43 percent of the 446 trainees were men. Oakland had the lowest ratio of males, only 33 percent of 565 trainees studied.

Participants represented a varied ethnic mixture. In San Francisco 36 percent were black, 18 percent Oriental, and 31 percent Spanish-speaking. In Oakland, 62 percent were black, 2 percent Oriental, and 15 percent Spanish-speaking. In Denver, 56 percent were Spanish-speaking and 15 percent black. And in Boston, 41 percent were black and 22 percent Spanish-speaking.

Of the original sample of 1,709 people, 243 were still enrolled in manpower programs at the time of the final interview. Another 329 were "not found for interview" and were counted only for the pretraining interview tabulations. Some 316 dropped out before completing training.

WIN enrollees, mostly women with dependent children, had the least satisfactory job experience. The percentage with work experience before or after training was low, "leading to the assumption that few should actually be counted as members of the labor force," the report says. "The program's greatest problem was that relatively few of its welfare mothers chose to seek employment following enrollment. Its dropout rate was also exceedingly high." However, the employment and earnings gains for those who did remain in the labor force after training were as favorable as any.

One of the oddities of the survey was that it showed a surprisingly good performance for trainees with poor schooling. In every city but Denver, trainees with an eighth-grade education or less had the highest average post-training wage. In San Francisco, for example, this group was earning $2.80 an hour compared with only $2.42 an hour for high school graduates. Although the report does not attempt to explain this apparent contradiction, it does note that "clerical training resulted in below average wage rates" and this training is generally not given to those with eighth-grade educations or less. It also points out that "postwage rates were higher for males than females," and an Olympus official said that women enrollees tend to have better educations than males.

The study found that minority participants did not fare as well after training as others. "As a general rule," the report says, "post-training wage rates, employment stability, and incomes were higher for Anglos (non-Spanish-speaking whites)

than for any other ethnic group. Employment stability and employment intensity were in general lowest for blacks."

The one exception was Orientals in San Francisco whose average post-training wage, $2.60 an hour, was the highest of any ethnic group in that city. This was attributed to an excellent English language training program. "It was apparent that many of the recent Oriental immigrants had skills which could be liberated by the attainment of language competence," the report declares.

In measuring the size of gains made by individual participants, the study found that "those who started from a lower base tended to make the greatest gains. Judging from this analysis, the most disadvantaged gain relatively the most from training programs."

The report maintains that in addition to benefiting financially people who complete manpower programs and get better jobs show improved attitudes toward themselves and society.

"Seven out of 10 respondents interviewed felt positive about the training they had received, with completers significantly more likely to have positive feelings than noncompleters," the report says. "Attitude towards teachers was overwhelmingly favorable (in over 9 out of 10 cases) with completers again the most favorable. Paradoxically, those with the greatest pre- and postwage difference showed the least favorable attitude toward teachers while attitude toward teachers tended to improve with employment stability."

Bay Area trainees seemed to be more intransigent all around, the report indicates. They are described as "less likely" to trust people, and maintained this attitude whether or not they completed training. And the more money they earned, the touchier they became. "There seemed to be an inverse correlation between wage increase and attitudes," the report notes.

The report examines in some detail the array of services used to help manpower trainees. In all four cities studied, outreach and recruiting were found to be virtually unnecessary. There were more candidates than training openings. "Only where a program was unpopular . . . was there a need to 'beat the bushes.' "

Prevocational training and orientation did not seem to make much difference in the success or failure of the participant. Counselors usually were more successful if they concentrated on specific problems of trainees rather than practicing amateur psychology by trying to help clients understand themselves or resolve their inner conflicts. "The effective counselors seem to be those who help the individual directly in the solution of personal problems —intervening in legal processes, mediating marital disputes, appealing to creditors, loaning money, bailing clients out of jail," the report states. "Rapport rather than professional training seems to be the crucial factor."

". . . Operation Mainstream participants in Boston . . . are gaining experience at maintenance, repair, and landscaping skills and in clerical and health occupations."

Job development and placement in the programs surveyed need improvement, the study found. Followup was limited and seemed to be confined mainly to help with job-related problems, often called coaching. "The coach must understand the trainee's problems," the report says, "but if he is going to help him settle into a job, the coach must convince the trainee of the necessity of accepting discipline and being productive rather than the two of them doing no more than agreeing on the shortcomings of the employer."

Supportive services, such as health and dental care, child care, and legal assistance were found to be necessary for a successful program. Child care facilities, however, were found to be inadequate. And little effort was addressed to solving transportation problems.

The report has high praise for basic education and language training. "Those who need basic education and language training need them badly," it says. "There seem to be many among the Spanish and Chinese-speaking immigrants who have substantial skills which can be applied only after language competence has been achieved. The returns to this effort have been great, despite considerable weaknesses in the techniques in use."

The report also offers a "resounding testimonial" for skill training: "Across the board, those who obtained skill training came through with better employment stability and earnings than those who received only nonskill training." Skills centers are described as the best place to get training. "Comparisons of skills centers with ad hoc training courses in 'moonlighted' facilities strongly support the former."

In summarizing the manpower services in the cities studied, the report makes these judgments:

"Outreach has been mythical; job development rare; orientation and counseling useful; and supportive services necessary. In general, the most vital and most productive have been basic education and language training for those who needed it and skill training for most of those who have received it. If it were necessary to cut off all manpower services but three, as a generality, these would be the three to keep."

Work experience and job training pro-

grams get mixed reviews in the report. The Neighborhood Youth Corps was seen as a valuable source of income, but with a few exceptions its "work crews seem to have been assigned to menial tasks with little supervision or discipline." The report notes, however, that "there are indications of progress in making work experience more useful in addition to building up the education component." This has come about as a result of improvements introduced nationally by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration.

Operation Mainstream, although described in the report as a "parking lot" for people waiting for openings in other programs, is considered useful as a source of income for its participants. While critical of the jobs found in the past for Operation Mainstream participants in Boston, the report says they are being improved, citing an increase in the assignment of enrollees to hospitals and public agencies where they are gaining experience at maintenance, repair, and landscaping skills and in clerical and health occupations.

Despite low-level jobs and a high incidence of alcoholism, Denver's Mainstream is rated a success because "one-third of the enrollees and one-half of those available for work have been placed in regular jobs."

New Careers, according to the report, has been "a disappointment" in terms of "high expectations" but "a positive force in getting the better prepared among the disadvantaged into entry-level white-collar jobs." For instance, a year after the death of the short-lived Denver New Careers effort, 82 of the 98 people who had been enrolled were still at work in white-collar jobs. "The disillusionment came as the promised 'new careers' remained entry-level white-collar jobs," the report says.

New Careers went better in Oakland, where "realistic promotion ladders were worked out, particularly in police work." But in the whole Bay Area, of 670 enrolled in New Careers, only 28 percent found permanent employment with the agencies in which they had trained. Some 36 percent had dropped out and another 36 percent were still enrolled. One of the main problems in the Bay Area, according to the report, was that the New Careerists had to carry a full-time class load at a community college competing with regular students while also working 20 hours a week.

". . . the East Bay Skills Center in Oakland . . . 'was clearly by and for minority groups and the disadvantaged.' . . . And during 1970, despite a tightening job market, 90 percent of its graduates were placed. . . ."

"In general," the report sums up, "New Careers enrolled minority people of above average education who expected what the program seemed unable to deliver. It was unable to break down customary barriers or restructure jobs but it did open access to entry-level white-collar jobs and education for those with the ability and ambition to progress from there."

Of the new institutions brought into being by manpower programs, the report's hardest words are reserved for the Concentrated Employment Program (CEP). It says CEP was not generally successful in the cities studied in concentrating and coordinating manpower efforts in poverty neighborhoods and has been characterized by strife and high personnel turnover, a lack of sufficient training slots for enrollees, and inability to drum up enough jobs for those it serves.

As umbrella agencies, CEP's in the cities studied have served mainly to bring more Federal money into the target areas, the report contends. Of the cities, only the Boston CEP is credited with putting together an integrated manpower program. In the other areas, the report charges, each CEP component "still runs as a separate unit with little coordination or communication among programs." CEP's inability to provide good jobs is described as its "fatal weakness."

Although in another report the Olympus Corporation called MDTA skills centers "a major contribution nationally," it found that the centers in the four cities studied were not typical of these facilities. Skills centers were created because local training institutions were unwilling to, or incapable of, serving the disadvantaged. MDTA courses originally were taught in vocational education facilities in the off-hours, and a limited choice of occupations was offered on a take-it-or-leave-it basis, according to the report. Skills centers were established to offer, in one location, prime-time facilities for counseling, basic education, prevocational training, skill training in a wide variety of occupations, and placement.

The study found that the East Bay Skills Center in Oakland has since its inception more than 5 years ago "suffered from an unfavorable location in an undesirable facility, a negative response from the local system, failure of one of the sponsoring agencies to meet its financial commitments, and union opposition. Nevertheless, an institution had been created which, though troubled, was clearly by and for minority groups and the disadvantaged." By April 1970, 92 percent of its enrollment was black or Spanish-speaking. And during 1970, despite a tightening job market, 90 percent of its graduates were placed and 90 percent of the placements were in training-related jobs, the report says.

Boston's original skills center, the report points out, was located in an area of the city where access was difficult for blacks, but it usefully served disadvantaged Puerto Ricans and anglos. There is now a second skills center in Boston located in an area more accessible to blacks.

Denver's skills center comes in for particularly high praise. It has been integrated into the administrative structure of the city's new community college, which assures that it will not be "socioeconomically segregated and cut off from the mainstream of postsecondary training and the labor market it serves," the report notes.

Denver MDTA enrollees attend classes with other students and even receive college credits. Regular courses have taken on a skills center coloration, the report says, and open entry has become standard. "Thus from MDTA, there emerged in Denver an institution committed to and capable of serving the disadvantaged but avoiding segregating them and stigmatizing them as second class. In the doing, Denver got a very different community college but one which fits the progressive mode of what 2-year, community-serving, postsecondary institutions are all about."

The study found that manpower programs have had far more impact on the individuals trained than on existing institutions. Such programs, the report says, have had virtually no impact on the school systems of the communities studied. Even when using facilities of the local schools, manpower training programs have been successfully isolated from the rest of the school system. Denver's new community college was the single exception; and even in Denver the impact apparently has been confined to this one school.

The State employment services, by contrast, are credited with experiencing major changes because they are "directly and centrally involved" in manpower programs. The report says the employment service has made a major turnaround from the days when it catered solely to the needs of employers. Much of the emphasis now is on developing the employability of the unemployed and underemployed, according to the report, and large chunks of program resources are devoted to helping the disadvantaged prepare for and find jobs.

" 'Thus from MDTA, there emerged in Denver an institution committed to and capable of serving the disadvantaged but avoiding segregating them and stigmatizing them as second class.' "

The report finds private employers have changed less than the employment service, but more than the schools. "Relatively few employers have been directly involved in hiring manpower program enrollees," it says. Public employers have lagged behind private employers, the report contends, noting that "because of merit system regulations, public employment is much more structured and much more difficult to change."

Nor have unions performed notably well, with certain exceptions. The report cites "the much maligned building trades" for making "the greatest contributions" in recent years toward opening jobs for the disadvantaged. On balance, the report concludes, "unions have probably been greater hindrances than helps in manpower programs of the Bay Area, but a mildly positive influence in the others."

The impact of manpower programs on the labor market has been minimal, according to the report. Program enrollment has been too small compared with the total size of the labor force and of unemployment. Denver, for instance, at the time of study, had a labor force of 540,000, unemployment of around 17,800, and an average enrollment of 2,500 in manpower programs.

"This is not a criticism of the programs or a suggestion that there was no impact," the report says. "The data measuring the very substantial impact of program participation on the employment and earnings of the individuals involved dispels that notion. It is simply a recognition of a fact of life that the programs have had the resources to enroll only a fraction of those eligible and an infinitesimal proportion of the labor market participants."

The study found that costs kept the skills centers from gearing their programs to train people for expanding occupations. In the Bay Area, for example, of the dozens of courses offered—ranging from auto mechanic to medical clerk—only eight were in heavy demand. The explanation for this, the report maintains, lies in the MDTA requirement that training be offered only in occupations where there is a "reasonable expectation of employment." To meet this requirement "while keeping per capita training costs low, MDTA administrators have chosen to train for jobs where openings occur because of high turnover, whether or not they are characterized by high demand."

Besides such apparent benefits as increased earnings and greater job stability for the disadvantaged, the report says manpower programs generate an important byproduct by creating avenues of advancement for minority representatives hired as staff members. These programs identified able individuals among target groups, gave them responsible jobs, tested them "in the crucible of experience," moved them up through the ranks and opened the way for them into better jobs in public and private employment. □

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News & Notes

The Labor Department, the Veterans Administration, and the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare are sending three-man teams of counselors to military bases overseas to help returning servicemen plan their future employment. The teams will advise young servicemen about to be discharged on jobs, training, educational opportunities, and other benefits to which they are entitled. Eight teams are now stationed at bases in Germany, and teams are being organized for Vietnam, Japan, Korea, and Okinawa.

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A continuing decline in aerospace employment is forecast through June 1972, when an estimated level of 894,000 will be reached, according to the Aerospace Industries Association's semiannual employment survey. The survey estimates that aerospace employment will be reduced by 37,000 people between December 1971 and June 1972. The rate of decline is significantly below that of the 1969-71 period, during which nearly 500,000 employees, more than one-third, were dropped from the industry's payrolls. By June 1972 it is estimated that 147,000 scientists and engineers will be employed, compared with the 1967 peak of 235,000.

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Dr. Allan M. Cartter, chancellor of New York University, has been named chairman of a new 22-member advisory group on professional, scientific, and technical manpower. The group is a subcommittee of the National Manpower Advisory Committee, which helps the Secretary of Labor to identify needs and priorities in the Nation's manpower policies.

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Are brown-baggers (people who bring their lunch to work) trying to save money or to impress their bosses with their diligence? Neither, according to a New York executive, quoted in "The Wall Street Journal." "Anyone who eats at his desk is considered too lazy to get up and leave," he said.

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A 6-month trial of the 4-day, 40-hour week has been cancelled halfway through at the Indiana University Hospital in Indianapolis. Nurses in a surgical unit elected to go back to a 5-day, 8-hour workweek. After 3 months of 4-40, they reported they were too tired to enjoy the 3-day weekends.

The Manpower Administration has refunded the Green Thumb Program through September 1972 to carry on its public service beautification work in 17 States. Green Thumb hires poor, unemployed workers 55 and older to carry out beautification and conservation projects primarily in small towns and rural areas. A companion effort, Green Light, also has been refunded through September. This program employs older, low-income people 3 days a week to strengthen community services to the aged, shut-ins, and the handicapped. The National Farmers Union, sponsor of both projects, has been granted nearly $7 million to provide work for 2,930 people.

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The Manpower Administration has awarded a 1-year $425,000 contract to the International Association of Firefighters to prepare 1,200 persons, mostly minority group members, to pass fireman entry requirements in 12 cities.

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New York City's seven medical schools are enrolling more minority students. Of 894 first year students in 1968, only 7, or less than 1 percent, were black or Puerto Rican. In 1971 this rose to 86 of 916 first year students, or more than 9 percent.

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Black students recently completing a special program for a master's degree in business administration at the University of Wisconsin have been offered jobs paying about $500 a year more to start than white MBA graduates. Starting salaries ranged from $10,000 to $14,000.

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The Manpower Administration has allocated $8.4 million under the Emergency Employment Act to provide public service jobs for unemployed reservation Indians in 221 tribes.

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The Spanish-speaking in this country are better off than blacks, according to the Census Bureau. A new census study shows that typical family income in 1970 was $6,280 for blacks, $7,330 for the Spanish-speaking, and $10,240 for other whites.

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Women's Lib has won another victory. The Standard Directory of Advertising Agencies for the past 6 years has contained a feature, "Portrait of an Agency Man," in each issue. The publisher says that henceforth the portraits will be of female ad executives.

The 4-40 Workweek: Two Views

Electronics Manufacturer Sees Gains in Productivity, Plant Use, and Morale

by W. Hunter Simpson

From the early 19th century until passage of the Davis-Bacon Act, Public Contracts Act, and Fair Labor Standards Act, there was continuing pressure—primarily from organized labor—to reduce the basic workday and workweek. The standard workday had been 12 hours in the early 19th century, gradually giving way to 10 hours and finally, largely through legislation, to 8 hours.

The concern of management before passage of these various wage and hour laws of the 1930's was that productivity would be lowered with a corresponding rise in labor cost. This concern proved to be largely unfounded. Industrial engineering played a major role as a growing field in redesigning the work content of jobs so that productivity, defined as output per man-hour, continued to rise in this country. In recent years, however, productivity growth has peaked and now output per

Mr. Simpson is president of Physi-Control Corporation, Seattle, Wash., and a past director and spokesman for the Western Electronic Manufacturers Association.

Union Spokesmen Cite Fatigue, Eroding of Labor Standards, Health Hazards

by Jacob Clayman and Thomas Hannigan

Labor's basic argument in support of the 8-hour day has not changed over the years. Since the turn of the century, organized labor has argued that more than 8 hours of work per day is harmful to the moral, social, and intellectual development of the worker, and to his economic well-being and safety. Unions have struggled to achieve the 8-hour day, both through collective bargaining and Government action.

Now we find the 8-hour day threatened by the 4-day, 40-hour week. Management sees substantial gains in this proposed arrangement. It permits more intensive use of capital equipment and thus spreads the capital investment per job. It also spreads both the fixed and indirect costs over more operating hours. The end result, management hopes, is greater productivity and higher profits. We believe workers are entitled to a share of any increased profits and that premium pay for work after 8 hours is an excellent assurance of this share.

Mr. Clayman is administrative director of the AFL-CIO's Industrial Union Department and Mr. Hannigan is director of research and education for the International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers.

man-hour as compared with compensation per man-hour, figured against the constant dollar, is starting to fall.

The concept of premium pay after 8 hours in 1 day or 40 hours in 1 week, as established by the Walsh-Healey Act, was not intended to provide a larger paycheck to the individual worker, but to make overtime so expensive to the employer that it would be more economical for him to hire more workers to handle an expanding workload than to work existing employees on an overtime basis. This concept, obviously, had great appeal during the depression years following 1929, and still has validity. Reduction of the basic workweek to 40 hours made an important contribution to the economy of the United States. The 40-hour week is considered just short of optimum by industrial engineering standards, thereby providing close to maximum efficiency.

Today a potentially revolutionary movement affecting the basic workweek is taking place in this country. Some 400 em-

ployers, including my own company, have adopted some version of an abbreviated workweek for the majority of their employees. The most common among these innovations is the so-called 4-day, 40-hour plan, a program which my company has implemented. Other companies have instituted similar schedules for limited numbers of their employees in special areas. However, companies adopting these new schedules represent only a small portion of the 1.5 million corporations in existence in the United States today.

Although this current movement toward a shorter workweek has been initiated by management for various reasons, they can be summarized as an attempt to improve employees' morale, and thereby motivate them to work more efficiently. Although this point will be discussed in more detail later, it should be noted here that companies which have made a successful transition to a reduced week do, in fact, report that these goals are being achieved.

There is very little in 4-40 that we find attractive. The advantages to the worker are basically the saving of time and cost of travel to work on the fifth day. The advantage of the bunching of leisure time is, in most cases, offset by the disadvantages of the bunching of work.

A 10-hour day is actually 12 or more hours portal to portal. It is a long hard day, which is bound to have adverse effects on workers and their families while rearranging work for the convenience of the employer.

First, consider the overall impact on the family. All too frequently a family's life style will be completely disrupted. For 4 days a week the worker's life will consist of travel to and from the job, work, and sleep—leaving little or no time for contact with the children, to help with the homework, or to provide the necessary supervision and discipline. The variation and intensity of this problem will depend on how much the new schedule deviates from the normal 8-hour 5-day pattern, which has become an integral part of our culture.

Transportation, to deal with one speci-

fic, presents many difficulties. Public transportation is scheduled less frequently in off hours. Arranging car pools will be more difficult, since a single pool often accommodates people working for different employers. Travel time will be increased in the winter months in many parts of the country because the worker will be traveling both to and from work in the dark. And after-dark travel in our metropolitan areas substantially increases the risk of mugging, rape, and robbery.

Most people believe the 4-day week guarantees a long weekend. This is not always true because the basic purpose of the 10-hour day is to permit more intensive use of equipment. That means night shifts and different days off each week.

When combined with longer hours, the 4-day week will result in a high degree of isolation for the worker. He loses contact with friends, relatives, and family. It also limits his ability to participate in community and union activities. Many union members are quite active in community and civic affairs. A 10-hour day would preclude their devoting any free hours on

4-40 Workweek *continued*

One aspect of the 4-40 plan that sometimes is overlooked is its potential for improving the ability of U.S. firms to compete with foreign producers. It has become necessary to take steps to meet foreign competition that would not have been considered necessary 5 or 10 years ago. Inflation has caused an increase in labor, raw material, and capital equipment costs to the point where domestic suppliers are having increasing difficulty in competing on the open market with foreign suppliers.

The observed value of the 4-40 plan has been a more highly motivated and, therefore, a more productive employee. Equally important, the plan has allowed companies to make more efficient use of land, building, and capital equipment. With respect to the latter point, it should be stressed that companies are not necessarily closing down operations for 3 days even though they are operating on a shorter workweek. Rather, the short workweek permits a company to schedule a longer workday without paying overtime, while, at the same time, permitting management to hire additional employees on a staggered work schedule, thereby obtaining 25 percent more use of its equipment during the basic workweek.

Companies which have made a successful transition to the 4-day, 40-hour week report lower turnover, less absenteeism, and far more unsolicited job applications. At the same time, employees working under this new plan are finding a number of benefits such as more leisure time, lower transportation, and other work-related costs, as well as greater flexibility in arranging their personal business schedules. Female employees in particular, who were expected to have negative reactions to longer hours, have welcomed the additional day off because it means less child-care expense, more time for major housework, and more time with their families.

Urban development has added to the desire for more leisure time and the shorter workweek. Traffic congestion in major cities during peak hours can be greatly alleviated by a variation in the basic workweek. Less environmental pol-

work days to the Scouts, the numerous charities, Little League, and dozens of other activities whose success depends on the efforts of volunteers.

Still another area of concern is the intellectual development of union members. Advancement in our modern economy is closely related to education. Unions have long been sensitive to this need. The International Brotherhood of Electrical Workers, for one, has negotiated many agreements which provide full or partial payment of tuition for after-hours college courses. A 10-hour schedule would foreclose on this opportunity.

It is true that some workers now work more than 8 hours, but Federal laws regulating Government contractors and many union contracts in private industry require that employers must pay a premium after the first 8 hours. For workers covered by such provisions a 4-day, 40-hour week without overtime pay would mean a 10 percent reduction in pay. A worker who currently puts in 40 hours in 4 days is paid for 32 hours at straight time plus 8 hours at a 50 percent premium. To change that would mean that an employee who is presently paid $4 an hour would receive $16 a week less before taxes, representing the difference between his earnings of $176 per week under the present setup and $160 under the proposed change. There is no reason to suspect that the savings thus realized by the employer would accrue to the population as a whole.

More important than the economics of the situation is that the 10-hour day will multiply rather than simply add to the number and magnitude of safety and health problems associated with work. Prolonged, unalleviated exposure of workers to hazardous substances, adverse temperatures, limited motion, noise, and artificial light leads to increased fatigue and increased levels of toxic substances in the body. As fatigue and toxic levels increase, the ability to function safely on the job and without permanent impairment to health decreases.

Even where factories and other work establishments meet current U.S. Department of Labor safety and health stand-

lution would be expected if workers had to travel to urban centers only 4 days a week rather than 5.

Additional impetus was given to the 4-day week when a number of national holidays were moved to Monday. Very soon after this legislation passed, the overwhelmingly positive reactions of workers to the increase in 3-day weekends induced management to make proposals for reduced workweeks.

For the employee, the 4-40 plan means the workyear is composed of 193 workdays and 172 days off. (This assumes 8 days for vacation and 7 holidays.) Thus, the short workweek plan is in the best interest of the worker from almost every viewpoint.

Companies adopting a short workweek have not made these changes unilaterally. Employee opinions were sought regarding their attitudes toward a longer day, but shorter week, according to Riva Poor in her recent book, 4 DAYS, 40 HOURS. Few companies exist today where unsolicited questions have not been raised by employees asking when their company will go on the shorter workweek.

The results of the Gallup Poll published in February 1971 showed that the general population strongly favors the reduced workweek, especially female workers and those who are college-educated. This survey included rank-and-file members of organized labor. And although organized labor is not officially in favor of the reduced workweek at this time, most major unions have smaller locals or units currently working under 4-day week contracts.

Opponents of change argue that any workday in excess of 8 hours, or even 6, is detrimental to health, and that excessive hours (10 or more per day) will induce fatigue more readily with a corresponding drop in productivity. In certain occupations, these allegations undoubtedly are correct. However, for many workers, especially those in the electronics and information technology industries, there is no reason to believe this to be true.

Few comprehensive studies have been

ards, the 10-hour day may mean increased injury and death rates for workers. An example is the problem of noise. The current limit is 90 decibels, on the A scale, for 8 hours. With a 10-hour day, the standard would have to be considerably lower.

Given current technical capabilities, to avoid serious loss of hearing in many work places, workers would have to be rotated frequently to reduce exposure to noise, or the use of protective equipment would have to be increased. And the use of such equipment—ear plugs and muffs—creates work hazards which stem from this artificial lack of hearing. In many work situations, such equipment contributes to fatigue and thereby creates additional work hazards.

Millions of workers already are exposed to carbon monoxide, lead, sulfur oxides, particulate matter, and other airborne contaminants on the job and in the urban areas where they live, and they will face particularly critical problems with a 10-hour day. Longer work days prolong exposure. The rate at which adverse effects can be expected to occur will increase tremendously.

To indicate the nature and severity of the problem, and the caution lights they ought to flash to us, we know that there are now in excess of 12,000 different chemicals used in industry. There are threshold limits prescribed for only 400 so far. Hopefully we will make more progress in the future, but we cannot afford to play a kind of academic game with the work environment that may cause workers loss of health and conceivably even of life.

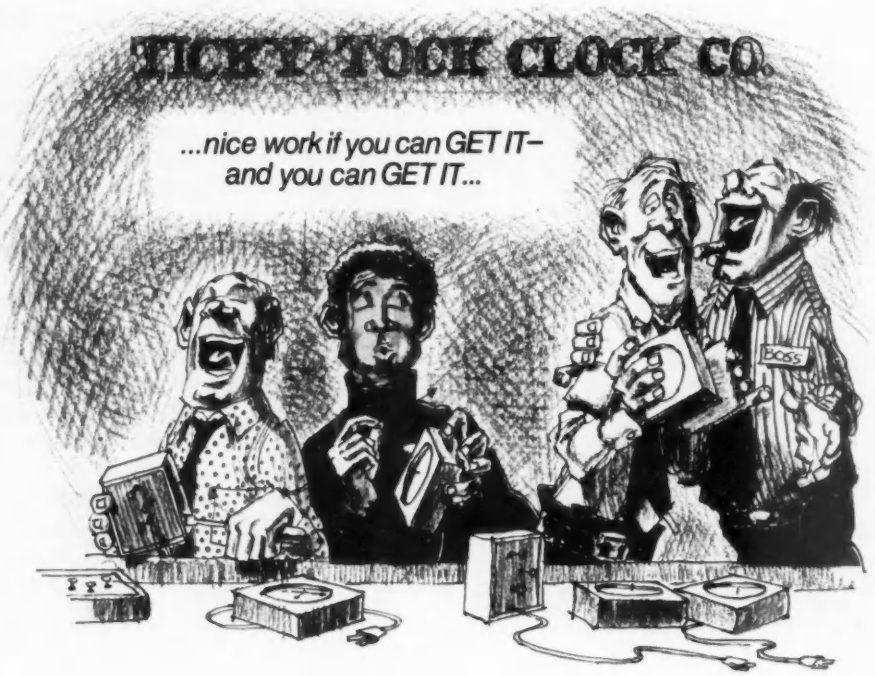
The prolonged workday also may compound physiological and mental problems by reducing the ability of the worker to recuperate from physical and mental fatigue through sleep. Where work is repetitious and monotonous, prolonged hours will inevitably increase the mental stresses now associated with such work. There is no objective evidence that an additional day off will offset these stresses.

We may take warning from two articles that appeared in July 1971 in the WALL STREET JOURNAL. After what appears to

conducted on the subject of worker fatigue. To quote from MOTION AND TIME STUDY by R. M. Barnes:

"At the present time there is no satisfactory way of measuring fatigue. Physiological measurements promise to provide objective means of determining the time and duration of periods of rest and work during the day. However, in this country we have not as yet done the research and testing to validate this procedure."

In those studies which have been conducted, however, fatigue is more commonly related to the employee's attitude toward his job and his working conditions than to length of hours. It has been generally shown, for example, that an interesting or varied job produces less fatigue than a highly repetitive or physically demanding one. Studies on the effects of music or color on various jobs have shown a direct correlation between tension and fatigue. Similarly, highly motivated employees interested in a company and well informed about their individual

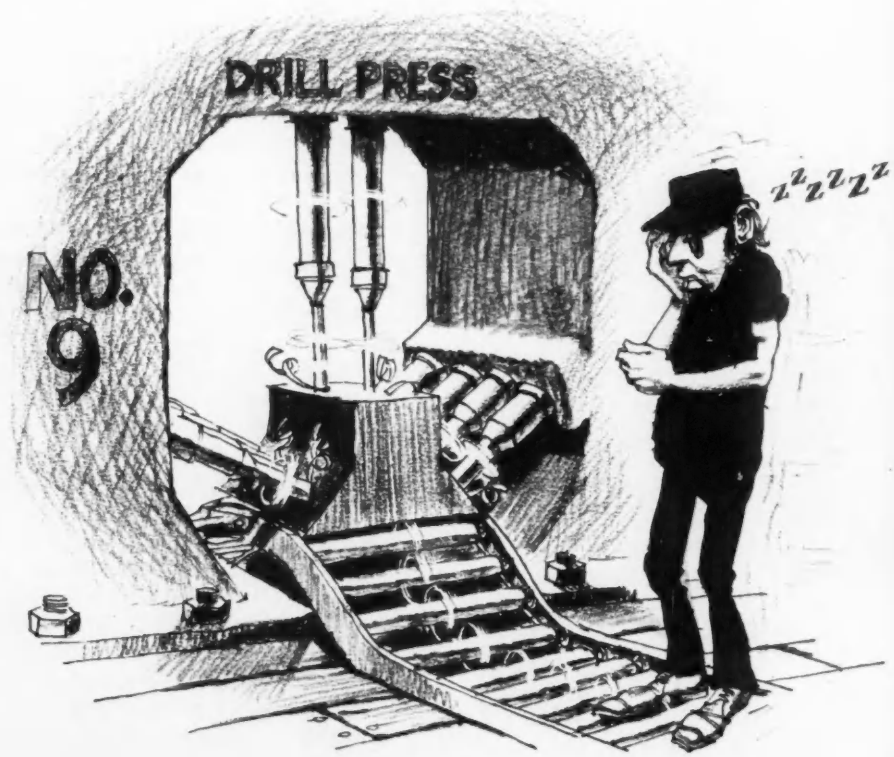


be a considerable amount of investigation and interrogation of workers in a variety of industries, the articles came up with the observation that some production and assembly work is not only monotonous but mindless and brutal to a degree that no outsider could possibly conceive. Doing the same mechanical process day in and day out is a terrifying grind. Adding a couple of extra hours every day for 4 days would make the burden of these jobs intolerable.

The most detailed Government study on hours of work was by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1947. In reporting its findings in a bulletin entitled *Hours of Work and Output*, the Bureau stated: "Generally speaking, the study indicates that, everything else being equal, the 8-hour day and 40-hour week are best in terms of efficiency and absenteeism and that higher levels of hours are less satisfactory."

The report further noted:

"Injuries also increased as hours increased, not only in absolute numbers, but also in the rate of incidence. In most



contribution show much less fatigue than their less motivated coworkers. As Barnes states it:

"Fatigue is by no means the simple defined thing that many would have us believe it to be. Catheart, Dill, and Mayo, all of whom have written very clearly on the subject, point out the many-sided nature of fatigue."

"A carefully conducted study, lasting over a period of several years, of fatigue of factory operators on a regular production work at The Western Electric Company showed that mental attitude of the workers was by far the most important factor governing their efficiency."

Proponents of the reduced workweek report that this is one of the positive results of the change. Employees are more interested and enthusiastic; they have not demonstrated the effects of fatigue. Obviously, there is a breaking point beyond which an employee becomes so exhausted that his efficiency drops considerably and his health and safety are impaired. But comments obtained from the vast majority of companies and workers who have adopted a short workweek indicate that the 10-hour day is more than compensated for by the 3-day weekend rest period.

In addition, the work force is undergoing a radical, though gradual, change. The significant shift toward white-collar work, coupled with the trend toward lighter physical work in better working environments for the blue-collar worker, makes the shorter workday less significant in 1971 than it was in 1936. Companies that have adopted a reduced workweek have done so because they expect to find that employees will be better motivated and that productivity will increase, or at least remain the same, while other benefits are achieved. To propose a system that results in greater fatigue and lower productivity (a standard measure of fatigue) is self-defeating, and would certainly have resulted in more companies abandoning efforts to change the workweek.

Much has been alleged about the problems associated with increased leisure time. It has been suggested that employees are not capable of properly using an additional day off, that their spending habits will change, and that more employees will moonlight. However, a shorter workweek eventually will come about, whether in the 4-40 or some other form (such as the 4-day, 32-hour workweek proposed by the United Auto Workers in recent negotiations). If the 3-day weekend is coming, the problem of effective use of leisure time will have to be faced ultimately.

Riva Poor and others have conducted interviews with employees before and after their companies have adopted the 4-day, 40-hour plan or similar work schedules. While the employees surveyed expressed favorable and unfavorable opinions of the new work schedule both before the plan was implemented and afterward, the percentage of employees favoring the 4-40 has never decreased in the poll conducted after its implementation. □

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of the observed instances, the number of injuries per million hours worked was very much higher at the longer hours."

"Work injuries increased disproportionately as daily hours were raised above 8 and weekly hours above 40."

"For hours above 8 per day and 48 per week, it usually took 3 hours of work to produce 2 additional hours of output when work was light. When the work was heavy, 2 more hours of work were required to produce 1 hour of additional output."

Moreover, working people generally are quite satisfied with the 8-hour day. They are not, as often depicted, interested in more hours and potential overtime. They enjoy free time. Over a period of many years, it has become clear that fewer and fewer people are working overtime. In the short run, this trend can be attributed to fluctuations in the economy but we are talking about the longer run. As noted in an article entitled *Recent Trends in Overtime Hours and Premium Pay* in the August 1971 MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics:

"Over the longer run, the decline in the number of people working overtime hours most probably reflects a preference for leisure. As their level of affluence increases, many workers are able to make an effective choice of time away from work rather than additional income from extended hours."

Efforts to change the workweek should be directed at an eventual reduction to 4 days of 8 hours without any loss of earnings to the employee, and with overtime for all hours in excess of 8 per day or 32 per week. A 4-day, 32-hour week would help reduce unemployment by requiring an equitable sharing of the available work. It would mean more leisure and family time for the worker and less fatigue, health, and safety problems on the job. And it would mean increased productivity because of reduced absenteeism, less fatigue and monotony, lower turnover, and fewer accidents.

According to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, (BLS), productivity increases expected during the 1970's would make it possible to reduce the workweek to less than 32 hours without any loss in output. In an article entitled *Trends in Labor and Leisure* in the February 1971 MONTHLY LABOR REVIEW, Commissioner of Labor Statistics Geoffrey H. Moore and BLS economist Janice Hedges wrote:

"If the entire gain in output per man-hour expected during this decade were taken in leisure time, then hours for workers would be reduced by an average of 3 percent a year, and the workweek in 1980 would be 29 hours. However, this is most unlikely. Gains in productivity in the 1970's probably will be divided, as in the past, between shorter work time and higher real incomes."

The 4-day, 40-hour week could lead to a reversal of this historic trend. If the Walsh-Healy Act and other pertinent legislation covering work standards for Government contracts were altered to permit this new arrangement, without overtime pay, it would be the old business of the camel's nose in the tent. In due time, the Fair Labor Standards Act might be nullified and we could return to the old days when work schedules reflected the strength and wishes of the employer alone. □

Teacher Gives WIN High Marks

Chances are good that the students in Patricia Reynolds' sixth grade class know nothing of the bumpy road that led their 23-year-old teacher to the 38th Street School on Wilmington Island, just outside of Savannah, Ga. Her unfailing poise and ready sense of humor reflect none of the serious obstacles that loomed along her way to the teaching profession.

Born in Brunswick, Ga., Mrs. Reynolds (then Patricia Pinkney) lived in Norfolk, Va., and Syracuse, N.Y., before settling down in the small town of Pembroke, Ga., in time to enter the ninth grade. "I knew even then that I wanted to be a teacher," she says, and her high school record at Pembroke attests to the determination behind that desire. She was valedictorian of her class.

But becoming a teacher means going to college and "prospects were pretty dim, since both of my parents were dead," Mrs. Reynolds recalls. Nevertheless, she moved to Savannah to live with an aunt and in the winter of 1967 enrolled at Savannah State College. After only one quarter, however, she was forced to leave school and take a full-time job. She continued to work during the following year but decided to go back to school in September 1968. She knew it would be a struggle. She was separated from her husband, whom she had married shortly after completing high school, and had a young son to support.

"It was obvious that getting back in school would require some financial help beyond what I would be able to earn working part time," Mrs. Reynolds explains. Toward that end, she obtained National Defense and Georgia Higher Education loans, both of which were repayable.

As she approached her senior year at Savannah State in the summer of 1970, she learned of the Work Incentive (WIN) Program, which is run by the U.S. Department of Labor's Manpower Administration. A social worker explained that WIN is designed specifically to assist people who are receiving payments under the Aid to Families With Dependent Children Program. She also pointed out that WIN's slogan, "From Welfare to Wages," sums up its mission, since the goal is to move people off welfare into productive employment.

WIN enrollees referred by public welfare agencies receive a variety of training and supportive services designed to prepare them for permanent jobs. Usually the training is of the occupational or on-the-job variety, but occasionally an enrollee is sent to college if that seems the best way to enhance his employability.

The upshot of the conversation with the social worker was a WIN contract with Savannah State covering the cost of Mrs. Reynolds' tuition and books for 1 year. In addition, the program provided her with a small monthly "incentive" payment to cover incidental expenses during that period.

"With two sizable education loans to pay off, I was particularly happy to learn that WIN required no repayment," says Mrs. Reynolds.

Last August was an eventful month. Mrs. Reynolds graduated on the 13th from Savannah State with the second highest scholastic rating in her class and on the 21st married the Reverend Charles Reynolds, a Savannah minister.

Mrs. Reynolds credits WIN with making an important contribution to her achieving her goal of becoming a teacher. As she points out:

"College students from families on welfare simply can't meet today's living costs and school expenses without some sort of financial help other than a part-time job." □

Ability, ambition, energy—and an assist from the WIN Program—put Patricia Reynolds at the head of the class.

ENDURING PARTNERSHIP

by Trudy W. Banta

Cooperative School-Industry Programs Survive Changes in Urban, Economic Climate

A few years ago, private industry began offering the Nation's schools financial assistance and technical know-how on an unprecedented scale. Civil disturbances in the cities threatened company properties and forced on business a heightened sense of social responsibility. Public schools provided a channel through which corporations could contribute to renewal and enrichment of urban communities.

A study of 64 industry-school cooperative programs was reported in *Bringing Schools and Industry Together* in the June 1970 MANPOWER. For the most part the programs were in their infancy when first studied in 1968 and were operating in a strong economy and a tight labor market.

The climate which nurtured this wave of industry involvement in schools no longer prevails. The inner cities are relatively quiet, and with industry operating at less than full capacity and with a higher unemployment rate, employers are more concerned about how to avoid massive layoffs of experienced personnel than how to prepare new workers. In these circumstances, does private industry still have the time and interest to continue cooperative relationships with public schools?

A review of some of the programs first studied 4 years ago reveals that in most cases the interest remains, though the emphasis has changed in keeping with altered economic circumstances.

One program still going strong is the Business Experience Training (BET) program operated since 1964 by the Chase Manhattan Bank in New York City. Originally an effort to reduce inner-city dropout rates by offering disadvantaged young men paid employment and job training, BET has proved to be a valuable source of new employees. It effectively combines group orientation to a work setting, individual and group counseling, and on-the-job training.

Only Seniors Accepted

This program is a good example of the change that has taken place in most of the industry-school efforts. Quality programing rather than quantity of trainees is now emphasized. In 1967-68 there were 50 youth in BET; now there are 25. Originally the program took in both juniors and seniors; now it takes only seniors. Juniors encountered so many school scheduling problems that it became hard to retain them through the end of their senior year. For the past 2 years BET also has taken in young women.

Another change has been in BET's goals. When jobs were plentiful, preparing trainees for immediate job openings was a primary objective. Today there is emphasis on students continuing their education at one of New York's tuition-free colleges before they seek employment.

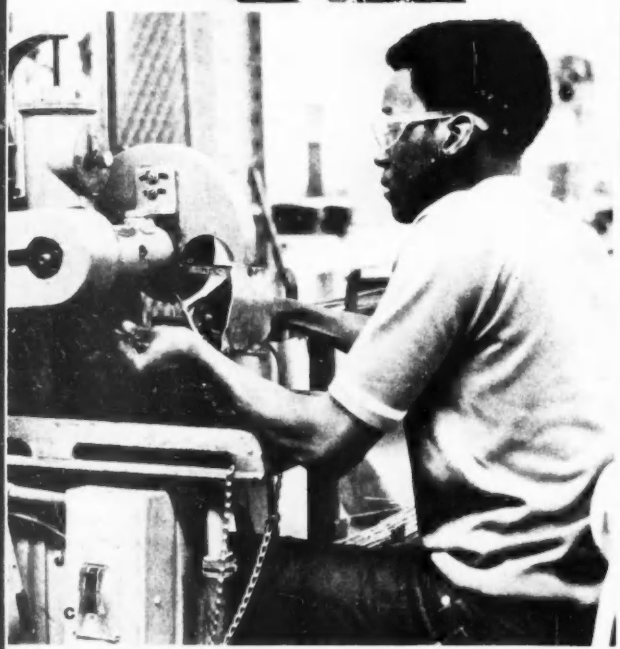
Four years ago, the North American Rockwell Space Division in Downey, Calif., was giving local secondary schools used machinery, curriculum help, and technical expertise for vocational classes. Cutbacks in the Nation's investment in space technology have not caused the firm to curtail school-related activities. On the contrary, it has now broadened its efforts to include cooperation in the Regional Occupational Program (ROP) cosponsored by two school districts in Los Angeles County and is cooperating in programs in a number of other school districts.

Initiated in the fall of 1970, ROP exposes high school students and adults in the community to a variety of career possibilities and to related classroom instruction and skills training on the job site.

ROP offers preparation for occupations in varied fields: Allied medicine (training as orderlies, nurse aides, lab and clinic assistants, etc.); structures assembly; plastics; retail trade; cabinetmaking; auto body repair; construction; education (teacher and library aides, playground leader, etc.); electricity-electronics; food preparation; urban horticulture and welding.

North American runs a program of its own at night for minority high school students (the ROP program is not limited to minorities and is open to all ages starting with the eleventh grade). The firm calls its program ACT—Advanced Communications Techniques. It offers 14 different courses taught in company facilities by the firm's administrators, technologists, and scientists. The courses give students a realistic introduction to television electronics, computer programing, microfilm techniques, printing, technical illustration, technical writing and editing, and the like. Company equipment, supplies, and procedures are used. The ACT

Dr. Banta is assistant professor of education at the University of Tennessee in Knoxville and is serving as a consultant on industry-school cooperation for the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory at Portland, Oreg.



a) *Martha Hernandez checks the accuracy of a technical manuscript in her typing class at the North American Rockwell Space Division in Downey, Calif. Martha, one of 75 high school students in the Advanced Communications Techniques (ACT) program run by North American for minority high school students, attends classes twice a week from 5 to 7 p.m.*

b) *Supervisor Mrs. Irene Branch helps Raymond DeForest with some mathematics problems on a teaching machine in the Woodland Job Center learning laboratory in Cleveland.*

c) *Mozell Stephens, an employee-trainee of General Electric, learns to operate a machine used to cut tungsten welding electrodes at Woodland. After completing his training, Stephens moved on to a regular job at GE's Nela Press Plant.*

d) *A nurse at Mt. Carmel Hospital in Detroit explains the operation of a kidney machine to Northwestern High School students. Thirty students spent 6 weeks at the hospital observing the work of various departments and assessing career possibilities for themselves. The Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Detroit school system, and the Chrysler Corporation all played a part in making the summer program possible.*

e) *Ronald Temple, a student at the Bryant Youth Educational Support Center in Minneapolis, works with instructor James Warren of Honeywell on a project designed to explore the basic principles of electricity. Teachers at the center call such projects "learning;" they seldom use the word "education."*

f) *Instructor Robert Johnson shows students Reggie Armstrong (left), Lee Conley, and Greg Foley (right) one of the pieces of shop equipment they will use at Bryant Youth Center. Classes at the center are ungraded and feature individualized instruction.*

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program spread to all of the other southern California divisions of North American and to other aerospace firms such as Northrop Corporation.

Courses of this kind point up another change in employer orientation toward career education programs in the past 3 years. Many companies are transferring support from general subjects such as business education and industrial arts to programs that prepare students for specialized technical areas in which industry needs skilled manpower.

In Cleveland, General Electric in 1968 gave the public school system a 4½-acre, 3-story warehouse valued at about $5 million to house vocational training, basic academic instruction, and supportive services for the inner-city's unemployed. This facility became the Woodland Job Center. About 40 companies hired disadvantaged persons and used the center for paid work experience and academic instruction for these employees. During the first year, more than 400 men and women were hired and trained. The effort was a cooperative one involving the Greater Cleveland Growth Association (Chamber of Commerce), the city school system, and the Manpower Administration's Job Opportunities in the Business Sector (JOBS) Program.

Variety of Jobs Sampled

Among the resurveyed programs, the one in Cleveland has been most dramatically affected by changes in the economy. Of the original consortium members from industry only GE has been able to continue. The firm now concentrates on quality instruction for a small number of new workers—15 employee-trainees in cycles of approximately 8 weeks.

GE provides paid work experience in a production shop at the Woodland Job Center. The school system provides vocational counseling and academic instruction. Housing all program components in the same building avoids disruptive scheduling and transportation problems that might arise if the employee-trainees had to commute to GE plants for their on-the-job training.

Other trainees at the Woodland Job Center are employed by Woodland Enterprises, a nonprofit corporation set up 3 years ago. These employee-trainees—high school students who are potential dropouts—volunteered to come to the center for both work experience and academic classes. At the center, these students are exposed to paid industrial work experience in a variety of occupations by working on small jobs which private firms have contracted out to Woodland Enterprises. This exposure helps the trainees to make decisions about their vocational and academic goals. According to Albert D. Cunningham, Jr., the center's general manager, some students discover that they are unable to take the monotony of repetitious, industrial work and elect to remain in school so that they can work toward a higher education or skill training.

In Minneapolis, industry's interest in stemming the school dropout rate with innovative learning approaches is typified by the Honeywell Corporation's participation in the Bryant Youth Educational Support Center (YES). The center was launched 3 years ago to open up special education opportunities to socially maladjusted or academically underachieving junior high school students. It offers remedial basic studies and a highly organized program of group counseling to modify students' behavior and to explore their long-term goals. Much emphasis is placed on students' responsibility for learning—student groups design the elective courses offered by the center, and individuals select the goals they want to reach and devise related homework assignments.

Honeywell contributes a substantial part of the annual operating budget, a free lunch for students, some clerical assistance, and help in building maintenance and repair. The firm also furnishes some of the supplies and technical assistance needed in the center's operation.

One of the most widely heralded ventures in industry-school cooperation is the Chrysler-Northwestern High School partnership which grew from the ashes of Detroit's long hot summer in 1967. Chrysler renovated a wing of the black inner-city school out of which it operates the Chrysler Action Center.

The center's goal is to upgrade the achievement level of the high school students. It operates a reading laboratory, a mathematics laboratory, and various occupational exposure programs which are run by the Board of Education with technical assistance and most of the funding from Chrysler.

By using experimental approaches, the center has tested pathways which later may be used in regular school programs. An example is the reading laboratory which raised the average reading level of 9th grade students by nearly 1½ years in only one semester. Northwestern now requires all students to take one of their eight semesters of English in the reading laboratory.

Social Needs Recognized

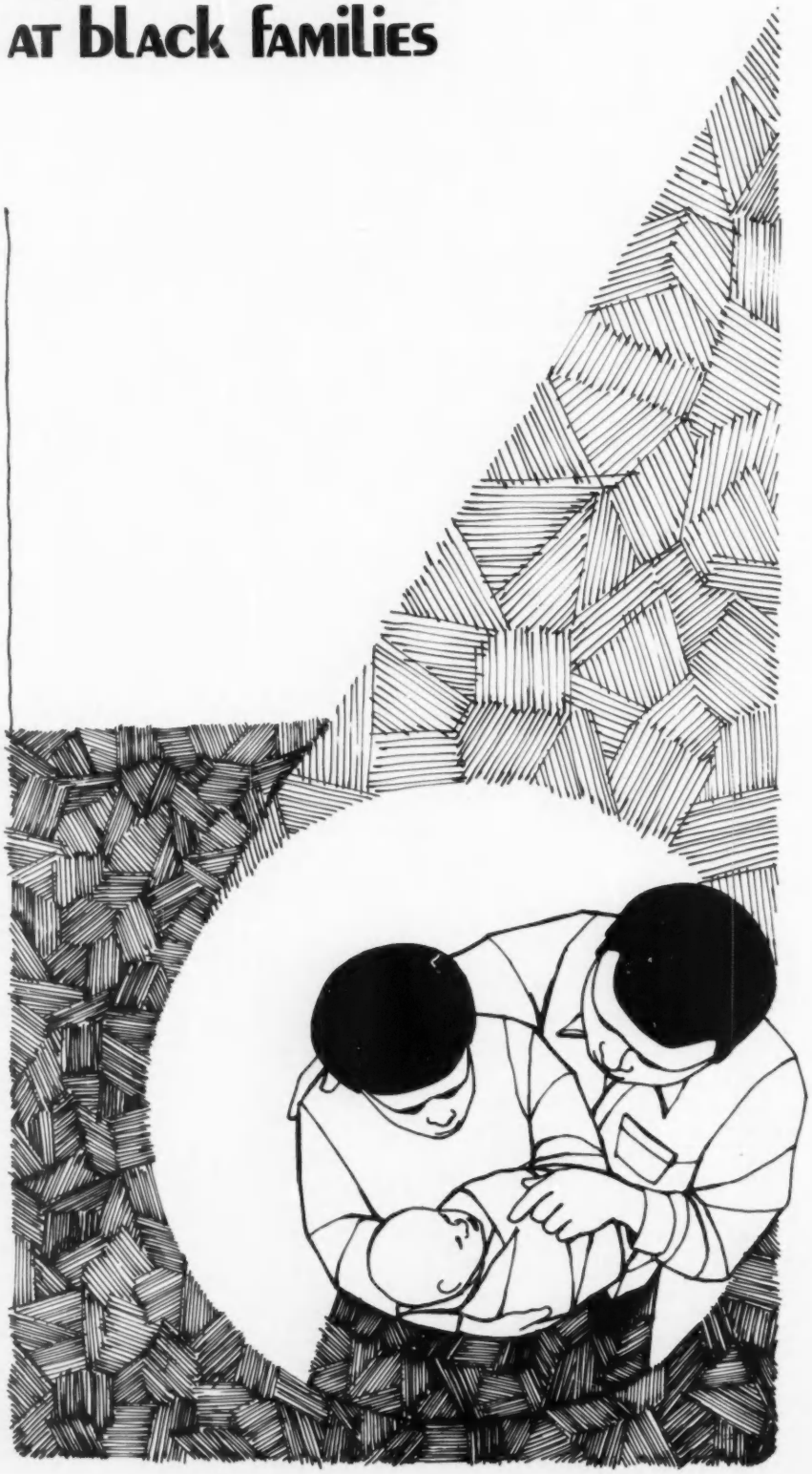
The center also operates a number of summer programs to acquaint high school youth with career opportunities. Last summer, members of the center's year-round medical careers club were exposed to a wide variety of hospital occupations at Mt. Carmel Hospital. Students eligible for the Manpower Administration's Neighborhood Youth Corps (NYC) program participated as NYC enrollees. Eighteen other students worked in a center-sponsored program in filling stations and garages. Employers paid regular wages, and Chrysler paid the salary of the program coordinator.

In another center program, six Northwestern graduates went to work on a trial basis for Chrysler dealers in Detroit. Chrysler paid the dealers $1.60 an hour for the students' work in auto mechanics, body repair, and parts departments with the proviso that the dealers would hire successful students after 6 weeks. All the students made the grade and are now employed by the dealers.

The restudy of industry-school partnership makes it clear that meeting short-term labor shortages was not industry's prime concern. Rather, it recognized great social and educational needs and that it could make an important contribution toward meeting them.

Today, there is increased recognition of this industry role. Recently, the U.S. Office of Education granted a contract of nearly $1 million to the Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory in Portland, Oreg., and the Far West Regional Educational Laboratory in Berkeley, Calif., to create a model for employer-based career education. Still in early stages, the project will use the experience accumulated to date in this field as it builds new molds for the future. □

A positive look at black families



The National Urban League thinks there has been too much unflattering talk —a lot of it inaccurate—about black families in recent years. Their alleged shortcomings have been exaggerated and their strong points overlooked. They have been viewed as having a self-perpetuating culture of poverty. Low-income black family life has been portrayed as typically disorganized, pathological, and disintegrating.

To redress the balance, the League recently completed its own study, *The Strengths of Black Families,* which maintains that black families typically display:

- Strong work orientation.
- Strong achievement orientation.
- Strong kinship bonds.
- Adaptability of roles.
- Strong religious orientation.

"It is our contention that examining the strengths of black families can contribute at least as much toward understanding and ameliorating some social problems as examining their weaknesses," says the author of the study, Dr. Robert B. Hill, associate director of the National Urban League's research department. "Systematic examinations of the strengths of black families should facilitate the development of national policies and programs which enhance and use these assets to their fullest potential."

The study is no mere exercise in rhetoric. Hill made an intensive survey of the literature on the subject. His bibliography lists 177 books, studies, and articles and his conclusions are buttressed by extensive use of figures from the Census Bureau, the Bureau of Labor Statistics, and other sources.

A review of this material reveals that blacks generally are just as anxious to work and get ahead as whites, and in some cases more so, according to Hill. A marked work orientation "is characteristic of most black families, for contrary to popular conception, black families place a strong emphasis on work and ambition," Hill says. For example, 59 percent of the heads of poor black families had jobs in 1969 compared with only 53 percent for whites in similar circumstances, according to Census Bureau figures, he points out. "Although it is widely believed that dependency is characteristic of most families

headed by women, 60 percent of women heading black families work—most of them full time."

And while "some observers suggest that blacks are not positively oriented towards work but are alienated from it," a number of research findings "contradict this notion," the study says. A 1971 study, *Work Attachment Among Black Men*, by Curt Tausky and William J. Wilson, asserts:

"In fact only a very small minority of black workers have renounced the widely accepted values of work held in this society. Work estrangement among all status levels is rare indeed and little or no difference exists between the samples of white and black workers. The similarities of work norms between the two groups are exemplified by the fact that 90 percent of the black workers and 91 percent of the white workers indicated that, if out of work, they would rather take a job as a car washer than go on welfare even if the pay for the two sources of income were the same."

Wives' Earnings Exaggerated

Another study by Joseph A. Kahl and John M. Goering, entitled *Stable Workers, Black and White*, reinforced these findings, according to Hill. Examining a group of stable working-class and middle-class jobholders, Kahl and Goering "found a high degree of similarity between blacks and whites on job aspirations and satisfactions, feelings of personal security in employment, as well as certain other work-related attitudes."

Because proportionately far more black wives work than their white counterparts, "the fiction that her earnings are often greater than those of her husband has somehow gained widespread currency," Hill observes. And black women are generally regarded as having greater job stability than black men, and less unemployment.

But Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) figures show average unemployment in 1970 for black adult men was 5.6 percent compared with 6.9 for black adult women. BLS figures also "reveal that in over half of the black families in which wives worked, they contributed less than one-third of family income," Hill says (see chart 1). "And in only 13 percent of these families was the earnings of the wives equal to or greater than their husbands'."

Nor is the situation much different among poor families. "Contrary to popular belief," the Urban League study notes, "the earnings of wives in low-income black families similarly constitute a small proportion of the total family income. In only 15 percent of the black families with incomes under $3,000 did the wife's earnings equal or exceed the husband's." But BLS figures also show that the wife's earnings equaled the husband's earnings in one-fourth of low-income white families. "If this can be used as an indicator of 'female dominance,' then low-income white families can be said to be more 'matriarchal' than low-income black families," Hill says.

Hill also strikes out at the notion that black men are unreliable workers and tend to drift from job to job. He claims a "high degree of job stability" among black men, pointing out that in their study "Kahl and Goering found that almost 80 percent of the blacks compared with 60 percent of the whites had held their current jobs for at least 3 years. And almost one-half of the blacks but only a third of the whites had held their jobs for 10 years or more."

Hill asserts that "self-help is the characteristic pattern of most black families. They do not have to be coerced to work; the only work incentive needed is a decent job at decent wages. . . . In the overwhelming majority of black families, whether poor or not, the husband assumes the primary responsibility of breadwinner."

As for wanting to get ahead, Hill says blacks have this trait in full measure and this includes the poor as well as the affluent. He cites figures from a black university, Howard, showing that only 19 percent of its students come from homes where at least one parent attended college, more than half come from broken homes, and about 80 percent require financial aid to remain in school. He further cites a recent nationwide survey of college freshmen by the American Council on Education. More than half of the youngsters entering predominantly black institutions came from homes in which the father had not even completed high school and in 80 percent of the cases had not gone to college (see chart 2).

Figures compiled in October 1970 by the Census Bureau were even more complete. They showed that three-fourths of all blacks enrolled in college came from homes in which the family heads had no college education. "Thus, contrary to popular belief, the overwhelming majority of black college students do not come from so-called 'middle-class' homes with college-educated parents," Hill says.

And in this same area, lower status blacks compare well with their white peers. Hill cites a number of studies, including one made last year among working-class elementary school children that showed that 64 percent of the white students said their parents wanted them to finish college compared with 80 percent for blacks. Hill also points to a 1971 study of 6,000 students attending high schools in the Deep South, which he says showed that:

"The occupational aspirations of black students from lower status broken homes were as high, if not somewhat higher, than the occupational aspirations of black students coming from lower status intact homes. More importantly, the occupational aspirations of blacks from lower status *broken* families were significantly higher than the aspirations of whites from lower status *intact* families."

Decision-Making Shared

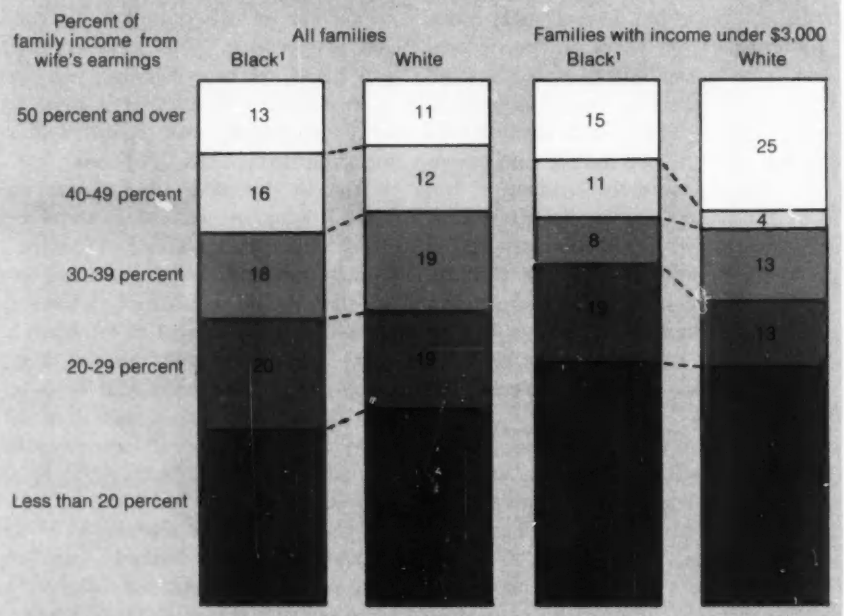
"An achievement orientation already exists in many low-income black families," Hill contends. "These strengths need to be built upon by truly making education the avenue for success which the 'American Dream' says it ought to be."

Although he believes more study is needed on the subject, Hill says black families and individuals can hold their own with whites in terms of role adaptability. Black fathers and mothers show great skill in taking over each other's roles in case of necessity and older youngsters are good at playing parents to their younger brothers and sisters. In fact, contrary to the belief in a matriarchy among blacks, Hill found that most black families are characterized by an equalitarian pattern in which both spouses share decision-making and the performance of household tasks.

Hill disputes the often-heard assertion that many poor black men desert their

Chart 1

Percent of Family Income Contributed by Working Wife in Nonfarm Husband-Wife Families, 1969



Note: Detail does not always equal 100% because of rounding.

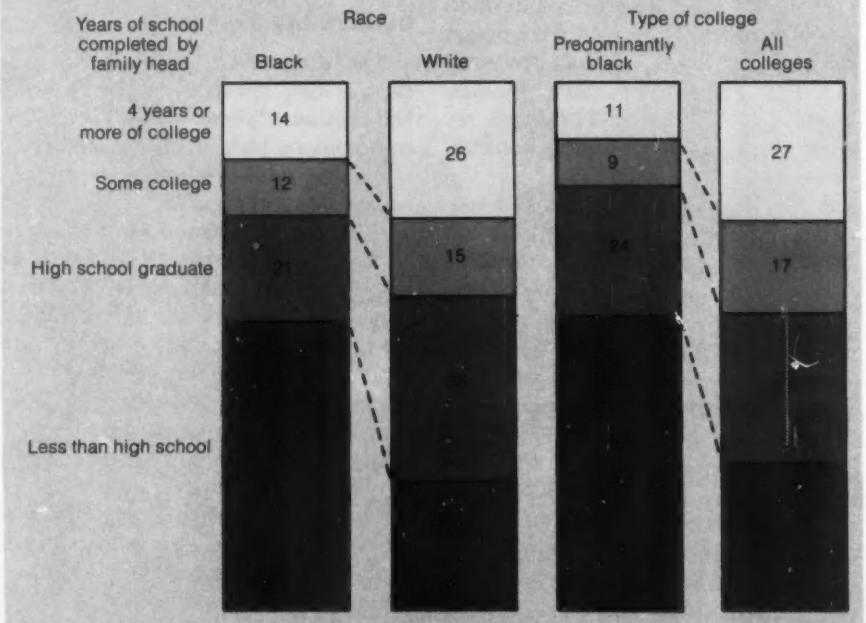
¹Includes other nonwhites.

Source: National Urban League Research Department from unpublished data in U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Chart 2

Educational Level of Heads of Families of Students Enrolled in College by Race and Type of College, Fall 1970

(Percent distribution)



Note: Detail does not always equal 100% because of rounding.

Source: National Urban League Research Department from data in U. S. Bureau of the Census.

families so the families can qualify for welfare. "It is interesting to note that this desertion thesis is quite popular, despite the almost complete absence of data on desertions to support it," Hill declares. "Uninformed inferences about deserting husbands are based primarily on the Census Bureau's marital status category of 'separation'—since the Bureau collects no data on desertion rates."

Actually only a small number of welfare fathers desert, Hill says. Figures compiled in 1969 by the National Center for Social Statistics showed that the rate was 19 percent for blacks and 12 percent for whites.

And, Hill adds, people who talk about the pathology of black families rarely mention suicide rates, "a significant indicator of alienation." The reason for this, Hill concludes, is that "since suicide rates are much higher among whites than blacks, they fail to fit conveniently the theories of self-hatred and pathology that social scientists have generated about blacks."

Suicide Rates Are Low

He points out that suicide rates are lowest among black women, "a group that continually experiences adversity." His figures, drawn from statistics compiled by the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, show a suicide rate in 1968 of 2.4 per 100,000 population for black women, 6.3 for white women, 7.3 for black males, and 16.9 for white males. This low suicide rate, Hill contends, is an indication of the ability of blacks to adapt to unfavorable circumstances.

Hill says that the strong kinship bond which is an important positive factor among blacks is demonstrated by the higher frequency with which black families take relatives into their households. The 1970 census data for husband-wife families with no children of their own under 18 at home shows that only 3 percent of white families compared with 13 percent of black families took in relatives under 18. "In families headed by a woman, the black families demonstrate an even greater tendency to absorb other related children," Hill says. "Forty-one percent of them, compared with only 7 percent of similarly situated white women, had relatives under 18 living with them."

When it comes to absorbing older relatives, "white families are just as likely as black families to have elderly members in their households."

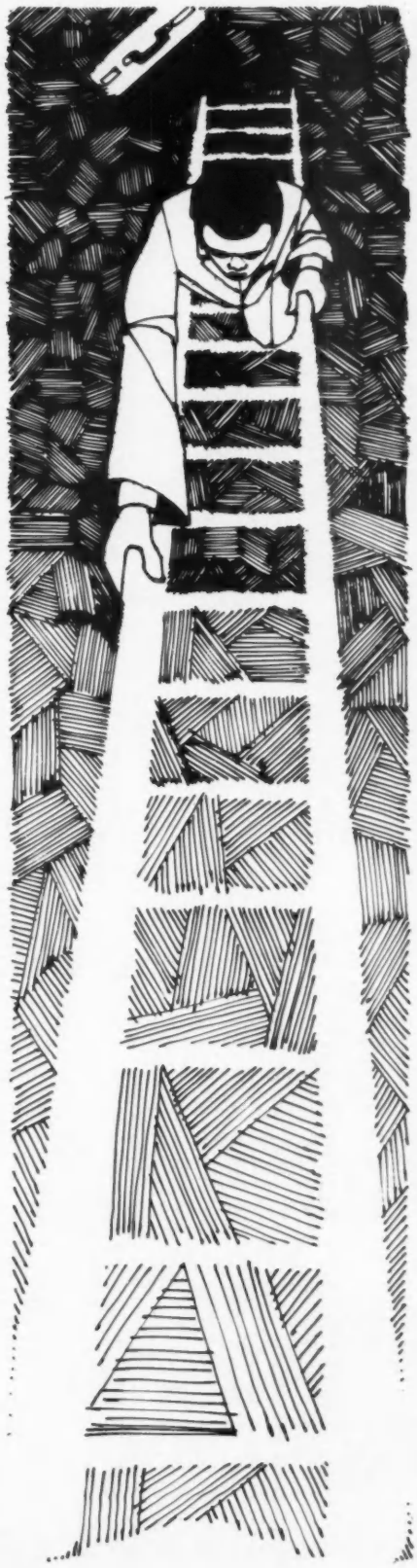
As further evidence of strong kinship bonds, Hill cites the willingness of black families, despite their economic circumstances, to adopt children. He discounts formal adoption rates, which are higher for white than black children, explaining that "since formal adoption agencies have historically not catered to nonwhites, blacks have had to develop their own network for the informal adoption of children."

Figures from a variety of Federal sources show that in 1968-69, only 7 percent of black children born out of wedlock were formally adopted compared with 62 percent for whites. But 90 percent of the black children were informally adopted or retained in existing families compared with only 7 percent of the white children. Hill estimates that more than 160,000 out-of-wedlock black babies were absorbed in 1969 by already existing black families.

"This feat of self-help among black families is remarkable when one realizes their precarious economic position," he says. "In most cases, it is difficult enough for them to provide adequately for their own children without taking in additional ones. The bonds between relatives in black families must indeed be tight and the value placed upon children very high for such a rate of absorption of additional children to occur so regularly among these families."

Hill calls for a radical overhaul of the present practice of adoption agencies to enable blacks to take care of their own in a more systematic and effective fashion. Black families often cannot meet formal adoption regulations because "they do not possess the 'right credentials,' they are most often 'fatherless' or 'too poor' or 'too disorganized,' " Hill says. But since these families "demonstrate a capacity to absorb these children each year, innovative placement procedures, such as income subsidies to poor families and placement in families headed by women, should be widely expanded."

Hill concedes that illegitimacy rates are several times higher for blacks than for whites. But he notes that it is no longer a "growing" problem among blacks. Census Bureau figures show the illegitimacy rate among blacks declined from 98.3 to 86.6 per thousand between 1960 and 1968 while it climbed in the same period for whites from 9.2 to 13.2.



A strong religious orientation is widely recognized as a characteristic of black families, according to Hill, and blacks have used religion as a survival mechanism since slavery up through the Civil Rights movement of the 1960's. He points to the leadership of black ministers such as the late Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., and the Rev. Leon Sullivan, prime mover behind the Opportunities Industrialization Centers, a nationwide program to train blacks for jobs in today's economy.

The strong orientation of blacks towards religion, work, achievement, kinship, and adaptability "have been functional for the survival, advancement, and stability of black families," Hill says. Past research on black families has "obscured some fruitful avenues of investigation." Most scholars agree there is a need to strengthen black families, he asserts, and "a first-order priority should be the identification of presently existing strengths and resources."

'Pathology' Syndrome Scored

Hill sums up his message with a quote from Whitney M. Young, Jr., the late executive director of the Urban League:

"We have heard so much about the pathology of the ghetto that we've been blinded to the real strengths that exist in Black America. Black people have been forced to develop psychological resources in place of the economic resources they've been denied. How else can we explain the actions of terrorized black tenant farmers in the rural South, who suddenly drop the happy-go-lucky mask they put on and risk their lives by registering to vote or sending their kids to a previously all-white school? Similar courage has been shown by black student groups demonstrating at the risk of expulsion, by welfare mothers protesting dehumanizing regulations, and by black parents demanding control over the schools their children go to. . . . Black people today are utilizing the strengths they have accumulated in their struggle to challenge the system that oppresses them. The black ghetto is . . . the repository of skill and bravery that will help transform our racist society into something better for all people—black and white." □

Words & Figures

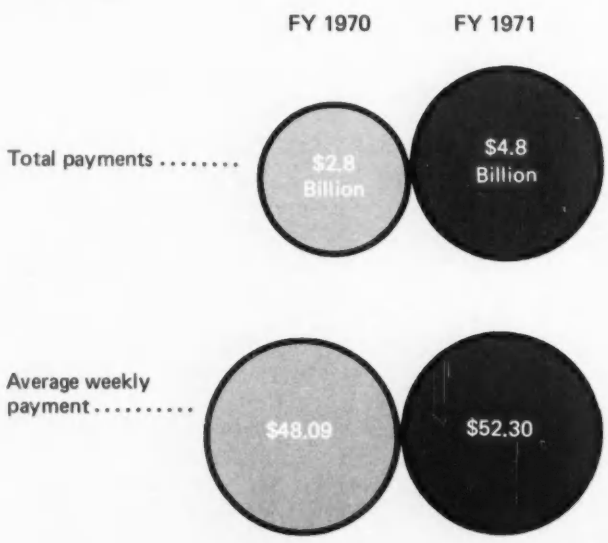
Unemployment Insurance Payments

Two of the primary objectives of unemployment insurance are to provide individual workers who have an attachment to the labor force with a source of income during periods of unemployment, and to serve as a counter-cyclical economic force during periods of above average national unemployment. The experience of the unemployment insurance system during fiscal year 1971 again demonstrates its ability to meet both objectives.

Unemployment benefits amounting to $4.8 billion were paid to jobless workers under State unemployment insurance programs in fiscal 1971, an increase of about $2 billion over the previous year. Higher unemployment, increased average weekly benefits, and an extended duration program initiated by the passage of the Employment Security Amendments of 1970 contributed to the increase in total benefits paid.

Under the extended duration program persons unemployed for long periods can collect benefits beyond the maximum number of weeks normally permitted. Twenty-one States paid out $394 million in extended duration benefits in fiscal 1971.

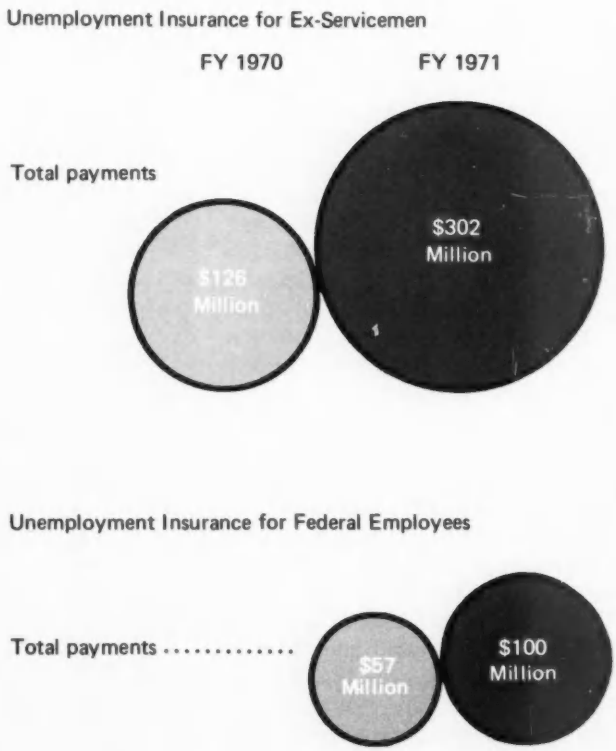
State Program



The average weekly benefit check in fiscal year 1971 was $52.30 compared with $48.09 the year before. The increase in the average payment added about $380 million to the total amount of unemployment insurance payments above what they would have been if the average weekly amount had held constant.

In addition to the State unemployment insurance programs, there are Federal programs covering ex-servicemen (UCX) and Federal employees (UCFE). These smaller programs paid out over $400 million in fiscal 1971—$302 million to veterans and $100 million to former Federal employees. In the previous year, UCX payments totaled $126 million and UCFE payments $57 million.

Federal Program



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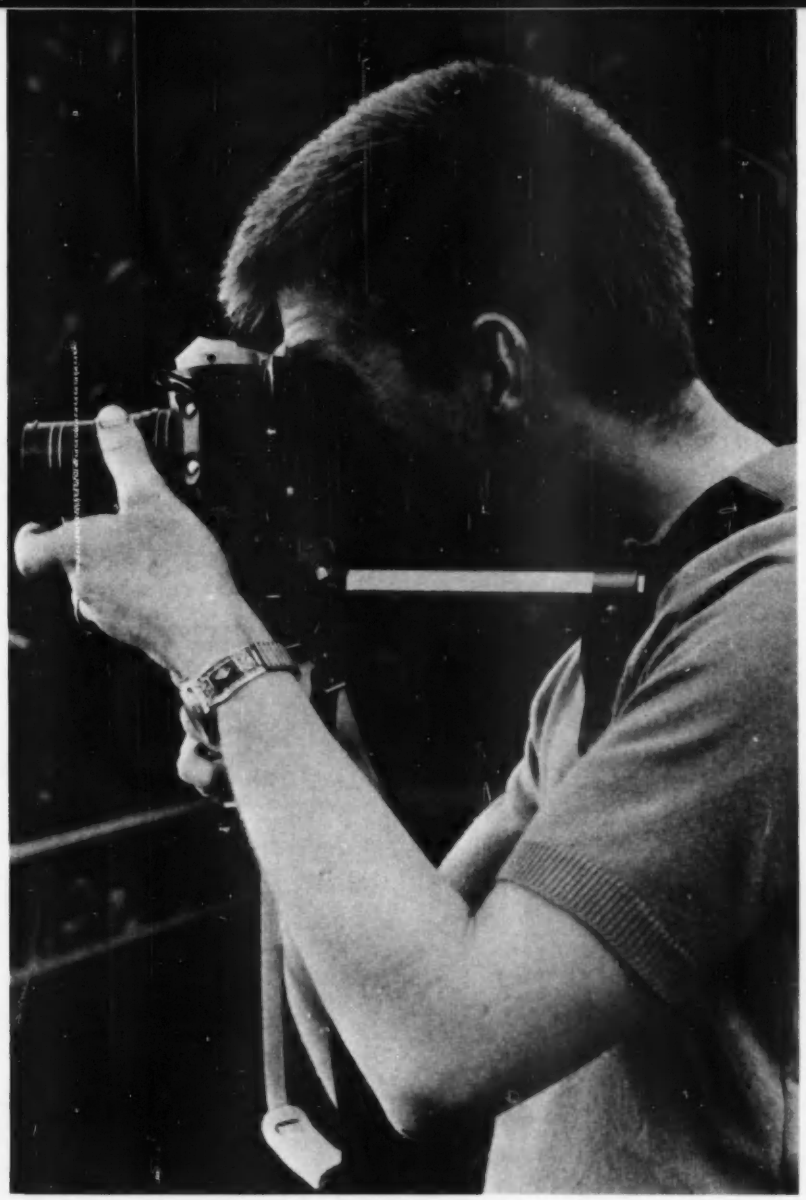


COMMUNICATING WITH A SILENT WORLD

Firm Tries a Deaf Worker and Gets a Man Who Attacks His Duties With Relish

By Gordon Kamp

Often there is a slender thread that links together human events, and such is certainly the case with David Carl Brenden, a 24-year-old bachelor who was born deaf, cannot speak, and suffers partial paralysis and a bad back.

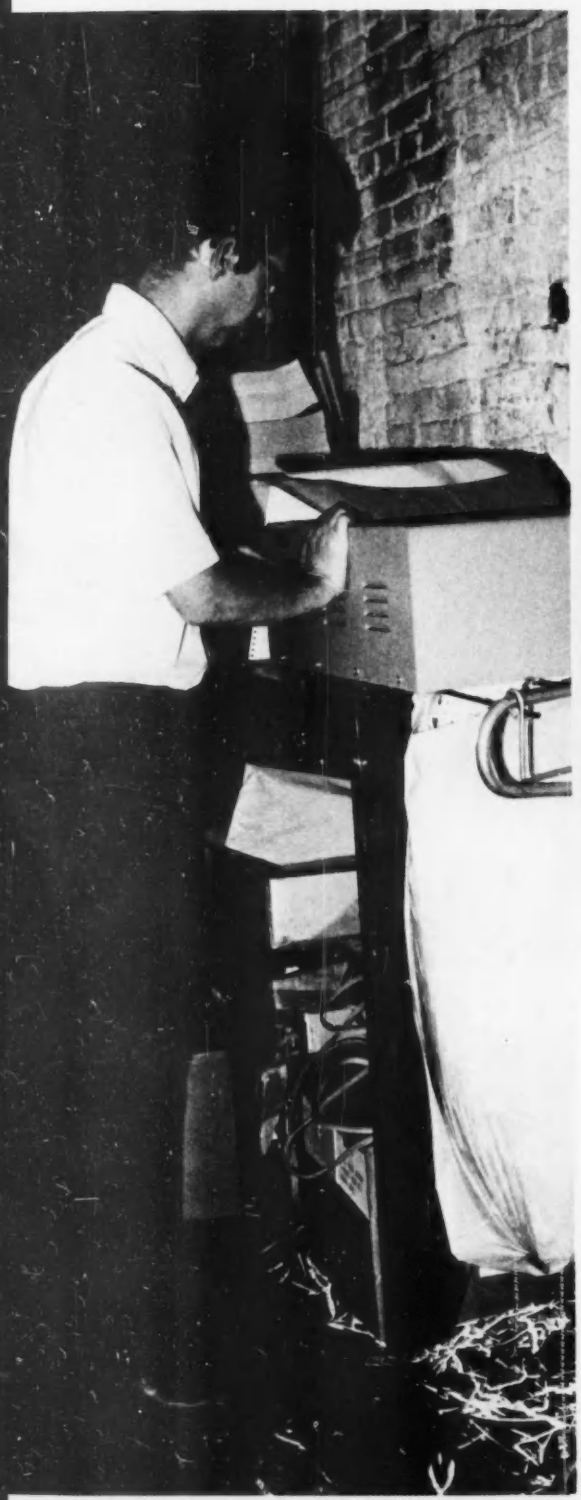
Two years ago, seeking a job, he walked into my basement offices at the headquarters of Airborne Freight Corporation in Seattle. I was then manager of the General Office Services Department. I shook his limp right hand, offered him a seat, and began the interview by writing notes and passing them to him. It was not an easy interview because he could not interpret all the questions—or, if he could, was unable to formulate an understandable reply. His problem was not ignorance. He frequently knew what I had written before I had turned it toward him, but he lacked sufficient experience and familiarity with words.

I studied his face—intense, thoughtful, honest, determined but shy.

With the approval of top company officials, David was hired to work half-days, to clean the office, keep the tile floors clean, make coffee, and do similar tasks. Other duties

Mr. Kamp, now a freelance writer, formerly was with the Airborne Freight Corporation.

SILENT WORLD *continued*



As he demonstrated his competence, Brenden's work schedule was extended from a half day to full time and he was given new responsibilities. His duties now include operating a paper shredding machine and a stacker-counter, and filling requisitions from among the company's 200 business forms.

were added as his proficiency and speed increased.

During the interview I pondered the slender thread of circumstance and fate that had brought David there. As a child my daughter Karen had been taught the importance of being considerate to the handicapped and she carried this philosophy into her adult life.

In 1969 David began visiting camera stores in Seattle, where he had for a while worked for the giant Boeing Company. Denied the pleasures of athletics, music, conversation, the sounds of theater or television, he had turned to "gadgets," and the challenges and pleasures of photography to occupy himself, and no doubt for some degree of intellectual stimulation. He had found clerks in many stores to be a bit slow to wait on him. Either thoughtless or thinking of sales commissions, they seemed to prefer to wait on "normal" people first. Karen, however, now a sales clerk in a camera store, treated him as she did the other customers, equally and with a smile.

Karen told me about David, about his frequent visits to the store and his many conversations with her. He told her he had lost his last job, in a restaurant, and was looking for other work. It was then that she and I arranged for him to apply for work in my department.

During the interview I thought about what life must be like for David.

Living in a world of sound, of music and talk, of laughter and the clatter of the busy city, it is difficult to imagine the strange, silent world of the deaf. It must be a world of silent color and silent motion, a quiet, mysterious world where people laugh at noiseless jokes, frown at unheard remarks, and move their lips in soundless communication. Surely one of the most treasured goals of the deaf is to communicate, to become a part of that secret world, to find out "what is happening," to relate somehow to the myriad visible activities with greater understanding and comprehension.

Many of my own brightest moments depend on sound: Hours of solitude made pleasant by a radio, the singing of birds, the gurgling of a coffee pot, the thunk of the evening paper against the front screen. Even the interminable cuckooing of the living room clock is a pleasant diversion. There is the daily treat of hearing my favorite newscaster report, "... and that's the way it is."

I wondered then, as I studied David, what are the effects of total, constant silence on an active, intelligent mind? What mental and psychic activities can he muster up to fill the gap? What senses, what activities, can he employ to counter-balance that tragic loss? What of rapport? What of conversation? What of music?

It was soon obvious that work is his substitute. He attacks his duties with a genuine relish. When his assigned tasks are finished, he looks about for something else to work on, and does it. He has asked for and been given additional responsibilities. He now works a full shift and requires almost no supervision. He has learned the location of each of the 200 different business forms the company prints, stores, and issues to its 65 stations around the world. He has learned to fill requisitions from these stations, as well as from the various departments within the building. He takes charge of the company's lunch room.

He has learned to operate the department's paper folder, collator, copying machine, postal scales, metering machine, electric envelope opener, paper shredder, and forms burster. He has learned to sweep without banging "the other end of the broom" into walls and windows, to observe the standard rules of "office courtesy," and to find the company's stock listing in the morning papers.

Every new lesson learned is important to him. I recall his first, when I showed him how, by easing the large waste cans onto a wheeled dolly, he could push rather than drag the heavy loads.

'His principal goals seem to be to earn his own way, to communicate with his friends, to be a useful member of society, and to be respected.'

He was slower to learn that metal waste cans should not be dropped onto hard floors; that the noise he was capable of making could disrupt a phone conversation. But he learned it, and learned it well.

Slowly we became friends. I learned that his mother had been dead for some time, and his father ill. One morning he told me his father, with whom he lived, was dead.

"My heart is broke," he wrote on his pad.

David's immediate superior spent considerable time monitoring, advising, counseling, and coaching him, aiding him in both his work and private affairs. Among other things, he helped David get a modern hearing aid. The device was soon set aside, however, for with it David could hear only the harsh and strident sounds: The overhead jet plane, the rumbling of a passing truck, the slam of a heavy door.

He still has a basket of problems. Probably chief among these is communication. He may still respond—as he did during his initial interview—with "I did not know." And he has a sometimes annoying habit of not answering a question until he is good and ready. I recall one particular series of notes he wrote at my house one Sunday:

"I got flat tire on bicycle."
"Did you fix it?"
" I did not know."
"Where is the bike now?"
"Tube has big hole."
"Where is the bike now?"
"I walked 3 miles."
"Where is the bike now?"
"I got wet shoes."

He has a keen sense of humor—much of it attuned to the visual pun. I remember how he laughed when he first saw my broken leg in a cast. After the laughter, however, he expressed genuine sympathy.

David may never overcome his handicaps, but given time and a chance he will certainly work at it. A free soul, he has the independence of an April kite, yet he is totally dependable both as an employee and as a friend. He is an instinctive gentleman with the patience of a man who will not admit defeat. He has learned to ask for advice, and quite often, to follow it.

His challenges exceed those faced by most people, if not in quantity, certainly in difficulty and personal hardship. He has periods of depression, but they are most often followed by long stretches of contentment and apparent serenity. His principal goals seem to be to earn his own way, to communicate with his friends, to be a useful member of society, and to be respected. □

Publications

Following is a selected list of publications on manpower and related matters. Single copies of Manpower Administration and Bureau of Labor Statistics publications for which no price is indicated can be obtained free by writing or telephoning the appropriate organization at the following addresses: Manpower Administration, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20210; Bureau of Labor Statistics, U.S. Department of Labor, Washington, D.C. 20212. Please enclose a self-addressed label with all requests for free publications. For publications not available free, write the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. 20402, and enclose payment.

Area Trends in Employment and Unemployment

Monthly Manpower Administration publication which classifies 150 major labor areas of the country in six labor supply categories. Carries a monthly statistical supplement providing data on work force, unemployment, and employment in these areas and a listing of firms which have been certified as eligible for preference in Federal procurement contract awards. Summary table on nonagricultural job openings in selected occupations is published periodically.

Employment and Wages

Manpower Administration quarterly with statistics on employment and wages of workers covered by State unemployment insurance laws and of Federal workers covered by unemployment compensation.

Employment Service Statistics

Monthly Manpower Administration compilation of data on placements, job openings and referrals, employer services, counseling and testing, and other selected activities of the Federal-State employment service system.

Unemployment Insurance Statistics

Manpower Administration monthly with data collected and reported under unemployment insurance programs and Federal programs covering Federal civilian employees and ex-servicemen. Data include benefit payment activities, employer contributions, appeals decisions, and disqualifications for selected industries and occupations.

Manpower

Monthly magazine of the Manpower Administration. Covers broad spectrum of programs and developments in job training and employment, including efforts to aid the disadvantaged, upgrading, vocational education, research, and hiring of the physically and mentally handicapped. Single copy 50 cents; annual subscription $5.50, foreign mailing $7.00.

Improving Productivity: Labor and Management Approaches

Bureau of Labor Statistics bulletin presents examples of formal efforts by labor and management to improve productivity. Describes efforts to provide training and promotional opportunities, to make greater use of workers' know how, and to establish more satisfactory work schedules, greater job security, and more effective work incentives. Bulletin 1715. 45 cents.

Monthly Labor Review

Monthly magazine of the Bureau of Labor Statistics giving comprehensive coverage of entire labor field: Up-to-date information on impact of technological change, prices and living standards, employment and manpower, conciliation and arbitration, wages and salaries, industrial safety, industrial relations, contract clause analysis, and trade union developments. Includes statistics section and book review department. Single copy 75 cents; annual subscription $9.00, foreign mailing $11.25.

Industry Wage Surveys

Summaries of results of Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys of wages and supplementary benefits in specific industries.

Fabricated Structural Steel, October 1969. Bulletin 1695. 50 cents.

Structural Clay Products, September 1969. Bulletin 1697. 65 cents.

Miscellaneous Plastics Products, August 1969. Bulletin 1690. 60 cents.

Auto Dealer Repair Shops, August 1969. Bulletin 1689. 50 cents.

Communications 1969. Bulletin 1696. 30 cents.

Southern Sawmills and Planing Mills, October 1969. Bulletin 1694. 50 cents.

West Coast Sawmilling and Logging, October 1969. Bulletin 1704. 45 cents.

Hospitals, March 1969. Bulletin 1688. $1.00.

Motor Vehicles and Parts, April 1969. Bulletin 1679. 75 cents.

Banking, November 1969. Bulletin 1703. 65 cents.

Union Wages and Hours

Reports of July 1, 1970 annual Bureau of Labor Statistics surveys of wage rates and scheduled hours of work for specified crafts or jobs as provided in labor-management agreements.

Local Truckdrivers and Helpers, Bulletin 1708. 50 cents.

Local-Transit Operating Employees, Bulletin 1706. 25 cents.

Building Trades, Bulletin 1709. 55 cents.

Printing Industry, Bulletin 1707. 65 cents.

Safety Standards

Bimonthly magazine published by Occupational Safety and Health Administration. Covers developments in industrial safety, with special reference to activities of States and Federal agencies. Single copy 20 cents; annual subscription $1.00, foreign mailing $1.25.

Occupational Outlook Handbook

Bureau of Labor Statistics 850-page encyclopedia of employment information includes reports on training and educational requirements, working conditions, salaries, and employment prospects through 1970's for more than 700 occupations and 30 major industries. Reflects changes in automation, technology, and economic climate expected during 1970's. $6.25.

Occupational Outlook Quarterly

Illustrated periodical published four times a year by the Bureau of Labor Statistics for counselors, teachers, educators, parents, and others who work with young people; students; and people interested in finding or changing jobs. Provides current information on employment trends and outlook. Supplements and brings up to date information in "Occupational Outlook Handbook." Single copy 45 cents; annual subscription $1.50, foreign mailing $2.00.

Employment and Earnings

Monthly publication of Bureau of Labor Statistics giving current national statistics on labor force, employment, unemployment, hours, earnings, and labor turnover; State and area statistics on employment by major industry division; and hours, earnings, and labor turnover for manufacturing. Data presented in summary, charts, and tables. Single copy $1.00; annual subscription $10.00, foreign mailing $12.50.

Employment in Perspective: Regional Aspects of Unemployment, 1969-70

One of Bureau of Labor Statistics series of articles presenting regional labor force data from Current Population Survey. Provides 1970 data on annual average basis and selected data for 1969. Report 395.

man·pow·er (man′pou′ẽr) -people, jobs, poverty, employment and unemployment, transportation, education, economics, housing, training, health services, upgrading, apprenticeship, research.

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More than a million servicemen were discharged from the Armed Forces last year, and another million are due to be released this year. One of the biggest questions they face is: "How do I get a job?" Employers have an important question on their minds too: "Can military training and service make a man a better worker?"

There are some answers for both the job-hunting ex-GI and his potential employer in a new Manpower Administration film– *That Job Interview.* Designed to help ease the transition of Vietnam era veterans to civilian life, the film stresses job information interview techniques for veterans and tells employers how military service applies to civilian jobs.

The film, in 16 mm. color prints, is available for showing through certain larger local offices of the State employment service or it can be rented or purchased from the National Audiovisual Center, Sales Branch, Washington, D.C. 20409.

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